

LEADERSHIP EXPECTATIONS
OF THE
PRINCIPAL IN NEWFOUNDLAND'S
REGIONAL AND CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOLS
AS PERCEIVED BY
PRINCIPALS AND STAFFS

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By

Philip John Warren

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LEADERSHIP EXPECTATIONS OF THE PRINCIPAL
IN NEWFOUNDLAND'S REGIONAL AND CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOLS
AS PERCEIVED BY PRINCIPALS AND STAFFS

A DISSERTATION
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by

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ABSTRACT

In 1952, the Newfoundland Government initiated a regional and central high school policy. This policy was aimed primarily at extending the educational opportunities of students from smaller schools. It has become apparent, however, that the problems associated with implementing such a policy in a province with a denominational educational system, a widely scattered population, difficult terrain, and a relative lack of wealth, call for comprehensive and expert leadership. Much of the responsibility for providing this leadership has usually been assigned to the school principal. It is assumed in this study that the extent to which the principal can provide effective leadership is greatly influenced by the extent to which there is consensus in defining his role.

The primary purpose of this study was to ascertain the relationship between the expectations of principals and teachers in Newfoundland's regional and central high schools for the principal's leadership role.

Eighteen principals and eighty-nine teachers completed a questionnaire containing sixty expectation items. Thirty items suggested principal behaviors in working with pupils, citizens, and teachers. The remaining thirty were adapted from the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire, an instrument developed at Ohio State University to measure the

leadership dimensions of Consideration and Initiating Structure.

The resulting data were analyzed to ascertain the degree of intraposition and interposition consensus. There was a high degree of consensus on items describing the principal's human relations role. There was a low degree of consensus within each sample on items suggesting the principal's supervisory responsibilities. A further conclusion was that there was no significant difference between principal and teacher expectations on each of the leadership dimensions of Consideration and Initiating Structure. It was also found that no significant relationship existed between teacher expectations and: (a) the level of the teacher's professional training, (b) the size of the school system within which the teacher operated, and (c) the teacher's total years of teaching experience.

One of the more important implications of this study is the apparent need for frank discussions among principals and teachers concerning the role of the high school principal. Such discussions should result in better relationships, and the development of more effective administrative or leadership behavior.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The rapid growth and increased complexity of modern secondary education has elevated the importance of the high school principalship as a professional position. Vast changes in the purpose and organization of the high school have made education available to more students, and have superimposed new tasks over traditional ones for the principal. This has often resulted in confusion regarding his status and role. It appears certain, however, that as enrollment increases, and larger schools are built to offer improved services, increasing demands will be made of the person occupying this position. Austin and Collins point out that whereas once he was chiefly a keeper of records, a strict disciplinarian of pupils, and a part-time teacher, the modern principal is increasingly required to take on responsibilities which demand comprehensive and expert leadership.¹

The principal is appointed to give leadership to the educational enterprise. What happens educationally in the school system is a function of the human and material

¹D. B. Austin and J. S. Collins, "A Study of Attitudes Toward the High School Principalship," The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Vol. 40, No. 216 (January, 1956), p. 107.

resources of the community; it is a function of the professional insight and skill of the teaching staff, of the support of the community, but above all it is a function of leadership, especially that of the principal. In communities all across Canada, people are looking to the school principal for leadership in guiding and co-ordinating the efforts of pupils, teachers, parents, and other citizens, as they work towards the establishment of an effective and efficient school system.

Goldring says that the quality of education in any school depends more upon the principal than upon any other individual.² Prueter states that the principal must become the key man in Canadian education and all efforts must be directed towards making him so.³

I. THE PROBLEM

Today, the principal often finds himself working with groups which hold differing conceptions of the nature

²C. C. Goldring, "The Principal and School Organization," Leadership for the Improvement of Instruction, Thirteenth Yearbook of the Ontario School Inspectors' Association (Toronto: The Copp Clark Publishing Co. Ltd., 1957), p. 36.

³K. F. Prueter, "The Role of the Principal in Classroom Supervision," Leadership for the Improvement of Instruction, Thirteenth Yearbook of the Ontario School Inspectors' Association (Toronto: The Copp Clark Publishing Co. Ltd., 1957), p. 33.

of his role, and how he should perform it. Chase confirms this concerning teachers in his study of leadership and morale.⁴ He contends that the leader's role is compounded of: (a) the demands of the situation, (b) the leader's own perception of his role, and (c) the expectations and perceptions of significant reference groups concerning his role.⁵

This study is an attempt to determine the leadership expectations of the principal in Newfoundland's regional and central high schools, as seen by the principal himself and by his staff. The primary purpose is not to evaluate the effectiveness of the principal's leadership behavior, but rather to ascertain the relationship between his beliefs and those of his staff concerning how he should behave as a leader.

II. BACKGROUND OF THE PROBLEM

To help provide an understanding of the general framework within which the Newfoundland school principal operates, it is deemed necessary to discuss briefly the educational system of the province, and to note some of its major problems.

⁴F. G. Chase, "How to Meet Teachers' Expectations of Leadership," Administrator's Notebook, Vol. 1, No. 9 (April, 1953).

⁵Ibid.

The Newfoundland Educational System.

This system has often been termed unique in that it cannot be classified as a state system in the generally accepted sense of the term, nor can it be classified as a denominational system in which the church provides and maintains the educational facilities. Frecker describes the system as a public school system operating within a denominational framework.⁶

The structure of the educational system of the province was largely determined by the way in which the province was settled. People did not generally come to Newfoundland in groups bringing their tradition of institutions with them, but settled individually in small coves and inlets wherever fishing was thought to be feasible. Where considerable numbers settled in larger communities, they did so on a religious denominational basis rather than on planned village or town organization. The parish became the governing basis of the group. Education became denominational and control was vested in the various religious bodies. As Bishop and Parrott point out, a system of small denominational schools, mostly of the one room variety, developed in the smaller settlements.⁷

⁶G. A. Frecker, Education in the Atlantic Provinces (Toronto: W. J. Gage and Co. Ltd., 1956), pp. 60-61.

⁷Eric A. Parrott, past president of the Newfoundland

According to Rowe, the provincial government in the final analysis controls education, and votes the money which makes the system possible.⁸ He further points out that the money voted is expended through the Department of Education, where the major denominations are represented. These representatives, with the Minister and the Deputy Minister, comprise the Council of Education--the policy-making body.

Local school boards, which help implement the department's policy, are usually denominational. There are some 300 boards in the province, many with jurisdiction over a "modified" large administrative unit, as their boundaries often coincide with those of religious parishes. However, in many areas there has been a movement towards the formation of amalgamated school boards which operate schools to cater to students of more than one denomination.

The Newfoundland system is replete with weaknesses. As Frecker points out, the system tends to proliferate, become more complex and unwieldy as the religious denominations multiply, grow in size, and seek recognition.⁹

Teacher's Association, personal letter dated May 3, 1959.

⁷A. Bishop, General Secretary of the Newfoundland Teacher's Association, statement on the regional high school forwarded to the researcher on May 1, 1959.

⁸F. W. Rowe, The History of Education in Newfoundland (Toronto: The Ryerson Press, 1952), p.1.

⁹Frecker, op. cit., p. 64.

Duplication of buildings and equipment in many areas has increased costs and decreased educational efficiency. A further weakness, also mentioned by Frecker, is that it is sometimes difficult to introduce changes because the Council of Education does not operate by a simple majority vote.¹⁰ The aim of the council is rather to secure general concurrence of the participating denominations before submitting policy proposals to the government. This apparent weakness, however, ensures that policies are well examined. A policy which was not adopted until the early nineteen fifties was that concerning regional and central high schools.

The Regional and Central High School.

Although the denominational system may have some adverse effect on school centralization, it is not the most vital factor as many are led to believe. Such factors as a widely scattered population, difficult terrain, a strong feeling in many areas towards holding the school in the local community, and the relative lack of wealth in the province, have all combined, together with the denominational system, to retard the building of larger schools, especially in the rural areas.

It was not until 1952 that the Newfoundland Govern-

¹⁰Ibid., p. 65.

ment, in collaboration with denominational authorities, initiated a regional high school policy. This movement has been considered most important in the development of education in the province. The Hon. F. W. Rowe, Minister of Education, expressed this feeling in a recent policy statement when he said:

It is not too much to say that one of the two greatest developments in education since the building of the University was the decision by the Government to implement this policy of providing a half million dollars a year for an original period of five years, later increased to a total of fifteen, during which boards would be able to build regional and central high schools.¹¹

The first regional high school was built in 1954. Since that time some twenty centralized schools have been built. Some are denominational regional high schools, some are amalgamated regional high schools, and in areas where pupils are too few for a regional school, central schools have been built. Grades other than high school grades may be accommodated in the central school. The aim is to provide further opportunities for those from smaller schools, and to eliminate as far as possible duplication of effort. As the Minister of Education points out, the average child in the one-room school of Newfoundland is sentenced to semi-

¹¹F. W. Rowe, A Blue Print for Education, Address given at the annual School Supervisors' Conference, St. John's, January, 1958. p. 5.

illiteracy unless drastic and radical steps are taken to provide a high school education for children from these schools.¹²

At present there are ten regional high schools in which teaching is primarily limited to grades IX, X, and XI. There are also ten central schools in which the teaching is limited to grades VII, VIII, IX, X, and XI. Because of such factors as the sparsely populated nature of the province, many of these schools are relatively small. The Corner Brook Regional High School, however, has an enrolment of 650, and a Roman Catholic Regional High School at St. John's, has an enrolment of 1000.

To make it possible for children from outlying settlements to attend central and regional high schools, the Government has introduced a policy whereby boards of education may receive grants for the transportation of school children. The Government's assistance may amount to 75 per cent of the cost, provided the transportation scheme has been approved. Where children are transported to larger schools, and where such transportation results in a saving, the Government will pay up to 90 per cent of the transportation costs.

If present plans materialize, the province should

¹²Ibid., p. 7.

have some fifty regional and central schools within the next ten years.¹³ This network of larger schools concentrating on secondary education, together with a newly introduced scholarship and bursary scheme, should make it possible for most children desiring a high school education to obtain it.¹⁴

Bishop states that the success or failure of these schools depends to a large extent on the following factors:

1. Co-operation of school boards.
2. Co-operation of parents.
3. Facilities for transporting pupils over difficult terrain.¹⁵

Parrott and Guy agree that complete co-operation within the school system, and between the school and the community is essential if the inherent difficulties of establishing a regional and central high school network are to be overcome.¹⁶ It is felt that this co-operation can

¹³G. A. Frecker, Newfoundland Deputy Minister of Education, personal letter dated April 24, 1959.

¹⁴At present there are over 1250 scholarships and bursaries which, when in full operation, will cost the Government upwards of \$500,000.00 a year.

¹⁵Bishop, op. cit., p. 3.

¹⁶Parrott, op. cit.

H. Guy, Newfoundland school supervisor, personal letter dated April 20, 1959.

best be attained through effective school leadership.

Leadership in the Regional and Central School.

It has been stated that the supervisory or instructional leader in any school or school system should perform four main functions. These are: consultation, motivation, program development, and evaluation. Until very recently, however, the Newfoundland school supervisor has been concerned primarily with evaluation. Often he has had to cover a large geographical area, visit many one and two-room schools, and work with a large number of teachers who possessed less than one year's professional training. This has meant that, in larger schools in particular, the school principal has been assigned added responsibilities in working with the school board and the community, as well as with the school staff.

The main responsibility of the principal of the regional and central school is to encourage and co-ordinate the efforts of all connected with the school and its feeder system so that it may operate as a complete whole. The units have to be so co-ordinated that there is continuous and uniform growth from the lowest grade of the feeder schools to graduation from the high school. The principal has an enormous task of establishing good public relations throughout the school-community. Too often, however, circum-

stances such as heavy teaching responsibilities make it impossible for the principal to discharge his administrative and supervisory duties in a manner satisfactory to himself or anyone else.

III. NEED FOR THE STUDY

Traditionally, except in a relatively small number of the province's best schools, the role of the principal has not been too well understood. In far too many cases he has been looked upon as a *primus inter pares* rather than as a chief executive and a leader.¹⁷ With the emergence of the regional and central high school movement, however, the role of the principal has come more into focus. The change in administrative organization broadened the educational services, and increased the principal's geographical jurisdiction. These factors, coupled with the complexity of the traditional tasks assigned to the principal, and the presence of powers and responsibilities borrowed from the supervisor, have all contributed to the lack of clarity regarding the principal's role. This confusion has often been intensified by the absence of departmental or local school board policy portraying a general framework within which the principal should operate.

¹⁷Frecker, op. cit., personal letter.

During the summer of 1958 Newfoundland held its first workshop for school principals. It was hoped that this workshop, under the direction of Professor Morley Toombs of the University of Saskatchewan, and Dr. Allan Morrison, Director of Curriculum for Nova Scotia, would focus attention on the principal's role.

The writer hopes that the present study will stimulate further thinking concerning the leadership role of the principal in the province's regional and central schools.

IV. DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

Although it is understood that the principal's leadership role would be more fully defined by the expectations of all individuals and groups connected with the school system, this study will deal with the principal's own perception of his role, and the expectations of the group which can be called his most significant reference group, and with which he has close contact--the teachers. The principal's behavior in interaction with teachers is of key importance in determining the quality of the educational experiences which take place in the system. Chase concludes that the professional leader must understand the expectations of teachers in order to bring about group action.¹⁸ Moyer

¹⁸Chase, loc. cit.

supports this by stating that the principal, to be an effective leader, must be aware of the expectations and attitudes of his teachers.¹⁹

It is assumed in this study that the extent to which there is consensus between principals and teachers in defining the ideal leadership role of the principal is an important dimension affecting the functioning of the whole school system. When there is a high degree of agreement among teachers concerning the way they feel principals should perform, principals may have to modify their values and change their behavior to fit teacher expectations. This, however, as Chase suggests, would not be an acceptable solution where teachers' expectations define a leadership role which is not in accord with sound concepts of teacher-pupil and teacher-administrator relationships.²⁰ Such conflict could call for progressive modification of the values and expectations of the group.

However, expectations must be defined before steps can be taken to fulfil or modify them. This study is an attempt to define leadership expectations of the principal in Newfoundland's regional and central high schools as perceived by the principals and teachers of twenty of these schools.

¹⁹Donald C. Moyer, "Leadership that Teachers Want," Administrator's Notebook, Vol. 3, No. 7 (March, 1955).

²⁰Chase, loc. cit.

The basic hypothesis of this study is that there will be different amounts of consensus on different expectation items within the principal sample, within the teacher sample, and between the two samples. More specific hypotheses to be tested by this study are listed in Chapter IV, when discussing a procedure for the treatment of the data.

CHAPTER II

CONCEPTS OF ROLE AND LEADERSHIP

In recent years, increasing attempts have been made to relate knowledge and methods of the social sciences to the study of school administration and educational leadership. As this study is concerned with describing the ideal leadership behavior of the school principal, it would appear that a brief discussion of the following topics would be pertinent to such an analysis.

1. Role and role expectations.
2. The nature of leadership.

I. ROLE AND ROLE EXPECTATIONS

Associated with every position or status in an organization, there is a set of socially-defined expectations concerning what is appropriate behavior for a person occupying that position.¹ This set of expected behaviors is referred to as the incumbent's role. It describes what the incumbent "ought" to do, and includes the expectations of all those connected with the position. Chase contends that the leader's role is compounded of the leader's own perception of his role and the expectations and perceptions of

¹R. M. Stogdill, E. L. Scott, and W. E. Jaynes, Leadership and Role Expectations (Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1956), p. 1.

significant reference groups, as well as of the demands of the situation.²

Stogdill, Scott and Jaynes also distinguish between two types of expectations--self expectations, and expectations of others.³ They quote Tolman to support this contention. Tolman said that the term role expectations

. . . applies not only to expectations of alters . . . that ego will behave in certain ways but it applies as well to the expectations of ego that if he behaves in these expected ways, the alters will meet his behavior with approval (or at any rate with lack of disapproval) and with other appropriate, complementary meshing behaviors of their own.⁴

"Self expectations" are described as referring to an occupant's definition of appropriate behavior for the position which he occupies. "Other expectations" refer to the expectations by other persons regarding an occupant's behavior in his status; expectations which may or may not coincide with one another, or with those of the occupant.⁵

As stated earlier, these two types of expectations will be investigated in this study. They are:

1. Self-expectations--the principal's own perception of his role.
2. Expectations of others--the expectations of teachers for the principal's leadership role.

²F. G. Chase, "How to Meet Teacher's Expectations of Leadership," Administrator's Notebook, Vol. 1, No. 9 (April, 1953).

³Stogdill et al., op. cit., p.3. ⁴Ibid. ⁵Ibid.

Role Conflict.

There are many situations in which role conflict may occur. It may occur in a situation in which a role incumbent is required to fill at the same time two or more incompatible sets of expectations. Such conflict may occur when an incumbent is forced to fill simultaneously two or more conflicting roles, or when the expectations of others are contradictory to what the incumbent feels he should do. The problem of dealing with inconsistent demands and expectations results in what has often been called the "dilemma of leadership." Being unable to conform realistically to all expectations, the leader will often be faced with having to choose between role expectations, or with attempting a compromise. Cheal and Andrews conclude that a major task of the composite high school principal is to

. . . harmonize and unify the expectations of the major alter groups towards his role. It is possible that, through awareness of the underlying conflicts, a well-conducted personnel and public relations program can materially reduce the pressures imposed by conflicting expectations and enable the principal more effectively to guide his school towards its goal.⁶

Although the primary purpose of the present study was not to uncover conflict, it is clear that conflict often does exist in describing leadership expectations of the principal.

⁶J. E. Cheal and J. H. M. Andrews, "Role Conflict in the Leadership of the Composite High School," The Alberta Journal of Educational Research, Vol. 4, No. 4 (December, 1958), p. 226.

II. THE NATURE OF LEADERSHIP

The term leadership in education often signifies different things to different people in different situations. Some refer to the leader as one who holds a certain status position in the hierarchy. Others feel that if the leader behaves in such a way that he is directing or influencing the activities of a group towards the attainment of shared goals, he is an actual leader.

Leadership Theories.

In examining concepts of leadership, three broad theories will be discussed. These are:

1. The Traits Theory.
2. The Situational Theory.
3. The Social Role Theory.⁷

"The Traits Theory of leadership maintains that leadership is a function of the physical, intellectual, or personality traits of the leader."⁸ This theory assumes that leaders are born, not made.

From a review of the many studies dealing with leader traits, Stogdill reported the following traits as being most common:

⁷J. H. M. Andrews, "Recent Research in Leadership," Canadian Education, Vol. 13, No. 4 (September, 1958), pp. 16-18.

⁸Ibid., p. 16.

1. Physical and constitutional factors: height, weight, health, appearance.
2. Intelligence.
3. Self-confidence.
4. Sociability.
5. Will: initiative, persistence, ambition.
6. Dominance.
7. Surgency: talkativeness, cheerfulness, enthusiasm, alertness, originality.⁹

Gouldner points out a number of criticisms of the Traits Theory. He says that traits are seldom listed in order of importance; that traits in any single list are not mutually exclusive; that traits associated with achieving leadership are not separated from those associated with maintaining leadership; that one is not informed whether, and which leadership traits existed before and which developed after leadership was assumed; and that the very basis of the theory, that personality is composed of a number of independent traits, has been discredited in psychology.¹⁰

To summarize, it might be said that the Traits Theory

⁹Ralph M. Stogdill, "Personal Factors Associated With Leadership," Journal of Psychology, Vol. 25, No. 1, (September, 1948), pp. 35-71.

¹⁰A. W. Gouldner, Studies in Leadership, (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1950), pp. 23-25.

maintains that leadership resides in the individual, and is capable of producing the same results at any time, with any group, and in any situation. It maintains that leadership ability is solely a result of individual qualities.

Next, the pendulum swung to the opposite pole with the emphasis on the situation as a determiner of leadership. Case studies were done to show that at particular times and in particular situations, different individuals acted as leader within the group.

At present, the pendulum appears to be swinging towards an intermediate position which suggests that exclusive reliance upon either a trait or situationist approach to leadership is not sufficient in itself. Andrews states that the newer concept of leadership, based upon the theory of Social Role, explains how leadership "can be partly a function of the leader and his behavior and partly a function of the situation in which the leader is operating".¹¹

Leadership Styles and Dimensions.

Three sets of leadership styles have received recognition in the past few years. They are:

1. Lewin's classification of Democratic, Authoritarian, and Laissez-Faire.
2. The University of Chicago classification, describing

¹¹Andrews, op. cit., p. 23.

leaders as being idiographic, nomothetic, and transactional.

3. The Ohio State University classification, describing leadership in terms of two dimensions: Consideration and Initiating Structure.

For purposes of this study, classifications two and three will be described.

The University of Chicago classification. Getzels and Guba have presented a model of social behavior which has stimulated research in the field of administration.¹² This model is based on both psychological and sociological concepts. Society is perceived as being divided into two classes of phenomena, both interdependent and interactive. These classes are: individuals, and institutions. Individuals have personalities which are portrayed in Figure 1 as being composed of need-dispositions. Institutions carry out such functions as educating and governing, and are composed of roles. Roles, in turn, are composed of expectations. Both need-dispositions and expectations are seen as contributing to social behavior.

¹²J. W. Getzels and E. G. Guba, "Social Behavior and the Administrative Process," School Review, Vol. 65, No. 4 (Winter, 1957), p. 429.

Getzels and Guba have classified the leader who is concerned primarily with roles and expectations as being nomothetic; and the leader concerned with the individual and his needs and personality as being ideographic. The "middle" man they have described as the transactional leader.¹³ Andrews states that the transactional leader is one who is able to steer a course between exclusive preoccupation with either of the extremes.¹⁴

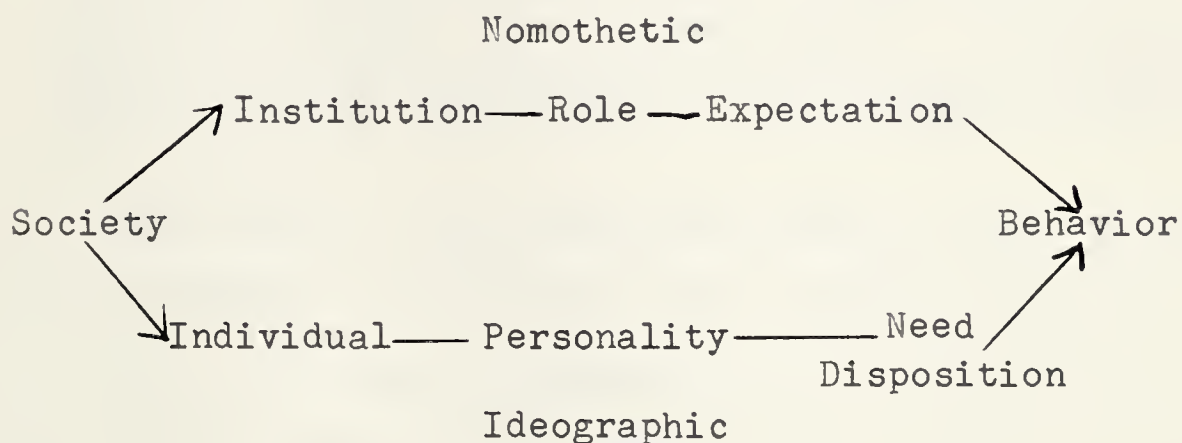


FIGURE 1

GENERAL MODEL SHOWING
THE NOMOTHETIC AND IDEOGRAPHIC DIMENSIONS OF SOCIAL BEHAVIOR

The Ohio State University classification. In the Ohio State Leadership Studies the approach to the topic of leadership has been that of examining and measuring perform-

¹³Ibid., pp. 436-437.

¹⁴Andrews, op. cit., p. 20.

ance or behavior rather than human traits.¹⁵ These studies, initiated in 1945, represent an interdisciplinary approach. Sociologists, psychologists, and economists have all contributed in an attempt to describe and evaluate leader behavior. Shartle states that:

It was hypothesized that performance in a position of leadership is determined in a large part by demands made upon the position. . . . On the basis of practical experience and the analysis of previous research, it was hypothesized that status, work performance, personal interactions, responsibility, authority and personal behavior patterns constituted a minimum set of variables necessary for a study of leadership in organized groups. These hypotheses . . . served primarily to give direction to the research, to define the variables to be investigated, and to suggest methods of measurement.¹⁶

One phase of the studies was aimed at developing an objective method for measuring how a leader carries out his activities. This phase resulted in the construction of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ). After several revisions it was found that this instrument described two dimensions of leader behavior: Consideration, and Initiating Structure. Halpin states that:

Initiating structure refers to the leader's behavior in delineating the relationship between himself and members of the work-group, and in endeavoring to

¹⁵Carroll L. Shartle, "Introduction," Leadership Behavior: Its Description and Measurement, Ralph M. Stogdill and Alvin E. Coons, editors (Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1957), p. 1.

¹⁶Ibid.

establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and methods of procedure. Consideration refers to behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth, in the relationship between the leader and members of his staff.¹⁷

Halpin points out that these two dimensions parallel the two fundamental group goals described by Cartwright and Zander: group achievement and group maintenance.¹⁸ Group achievement refers to the extent to which the group accomplishes the group task, whereas group maintenance is measured by the extent to which the group remains intact as a group.

Barnard had previously distinguished between the effectiveness and efficiency of co-operative action by stating that effectiveness related to the accomplishment of the co-operative purpose which was social and non-personal in character, whereas efficiency related to the satisfaction of individual motives, and was personal in character.¹⁹

III. SUMMARY

To summarize the section of this chapter on role and role expectations, it might first be stated that a role is

¹⁷Andrew W. Halpin, The Leadership Behavior of School Superintendents (Columbus, Ohio: College of Education, Ohio State University, 1956), p.4.

¹⁸Ibid., p. 5.

¹⁹Chester I. Barnard, The Functions of the Executive (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1938), pp. 60-61.

defined as the set of behaviors attributed to a given position. When different groups hold incompatible expectations for an incumbent's role, the result is termed role conflict. The leader, to be effective, must possess the ability to resolve this conflict by harmonizing and unifying the expectations of those closely associated with his position.

Getzels and Guba have classified leaders as being nomothetic, ideographic, or transactional. The nomothetic leader is primarily concerned with roles and expectations, the ideographic with personality and individual needs, and the transactional with neither of these two extremes. Ohio State University studies have established two dimensions of leadership: Consideration and Initiating Structure. They see the successful leader as one who has the ability to take the initiative, to plan and organize action, but in so doing to evoke the co-operation of all concerned.

CHAPTER III

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

In recent years the demand for effective leadership has been intensified in our society. Many studies have been and are being done to define the leadership role. A selection of these studies will be discussed in this chapter under three main headings. These are:

1. The leadership behavior of the principal.
2. Leadership and role expectations.
3. The great dilemma.

I. THE LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR OF THE PRINCIPAL

The effectiveness of a school or school system is greatly influenced, if not fully determined, by the quality of its leadership. The principal is the key figure in maintaining the present educational level of the school program and in guiding its further development. He is at the helm of the most promising unit for educational change. His vision of needed school improvement influences the aspirations of others. His understanding and skill in human relations will help release the drive and intelligence of teachers, pupils, parents and citizens in general.

Factors Affecting Administrative Behavior.

An understanding of the administrator or administration

requires knowledge of the situational factors which qualify or modify administrative behavior.

In recent years there have been many forces operating which call for more teamwork on the part of those connected with the school system. Three forces often mentioned in the literature are:

1. The growing impact of psycho-sociological investigations, with emphasis on human relations.
2. The growing knowledge of the complexities of the learning process.
3. The continuing pressure for broader community participation in deciding school policy.

To these might be added a fourth factor which has been particularly pertinent in many parts of Canada--the trend towards greater centralization of educational facilities.

These forces are relatively new in their collective impact on the principalship. They have helped change the principalship from a strictly executive, authoritative position, to one offering vital leadership to the school system. Fowlkes states that today "neither single-handedness nor high-mindedness characterizes effective leadership in major administrative posts."¹ Flaum says that the principal

¹J. C. Fowlkes, "Building the Administrative Team," The Nation's Schools, Vol. 60, No. 5 (November, 1957), p. 51.

is a leader who believes in helping teachers find self-incentive, through the discovery and encouragement of their talents and special interests. He adds that the effective principal encourages teachers to become self-reliant, responsibility-accepting individuals, rather than cogs operating through imposed regulations or authority.² Austin states that the role of the modern high school principal is to further the professional growth of teachers, to marshall every possible resource and inspiration through constant and careful planning, to take full advantage of all that is available through the study of men and society, and to constantly relate effort to purpose.³

Goodlad sums up his concept of the modern leader by stating that "The effective leader has a sense of direction that is all his own; his own in that he has made his own synthesis of the thoughtful wishes of the group."⁴

A study completed at Ohio State University in 1955 was aimed at determining the factors which qualify,

²F. S. Flaum, "Credo for Principals," The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, Vol. 42, No. 238 (May, 1958), p. 35.

³E. S. Austin, "The Role of the High School Principal," Teachers College Record, Vol. 56, No. 7 (April, 1955), p. 411.

⁴J. I. Goodlad, "The Individual School and its Principal: Key Setting and Key Person in Educational Leadership," Educational Leadership, Vol. 13, No. 1 (October, 1955), p. 4.

condition, and give direction or impetus to administrative behavior.⁵ Ramseyer and others, the authors, list thirty-seven factors which seem to affect the behavior of those in school administrative posts. Included in these factors are:

1. Beliefs and attitudes of individuals in the school-community.
2. Basic abilities and understandings of individuals in the school-community.
3. Community expectations and traditions.⁶

The monograph concludes by stating that if administrative behavior is affected by these factors, changes in behavior are dependent upon changes in the factors themselves or changes in their bearing upon behavior.⁷

Leadership and Human Relations.

Many recent studies have confirmed the importance of adequate human relations within the school system.

A study by Jenkins and Blackman is based on the assumption that the behavior of the administrator affects the behavior of teachers, which, in turn, is reflected in the instruction of boys and girls.⁸ In studying the relation-

⁵J. A. Ramseyer, et al. Factors Affecting Educational Administration. SCDS Series (Columbus, Ohio: College of Education, Ohio State University, 1956), p. 7.

⁶Ibid., p. 57-59.

⁷Ibid., p. 97.

⁸D. H. Jenkins and C. A. Blackman, Antecedents and

ship between the administrative behavior of elementary principals and the productivity of teachers in curriculum development, they found, contrary to expectations, that there was no relationship between the way a faculty was organized and the productivity of teachers.⁹ It was apparent that the climate of whatever organization was used was more important than its form.

Beem also points out the need for greater emphasis on the role of human relations in every aspect of educational administration. He concludes that the administrator's ability to do the administrative details is important, but his ability to work co-operatively and effectively with his school board, his community, and his staff, is of far greater importance.¹⁰ Cornell notes that the way teachers feel they are related to one another in an organization as a whole seems to be more important than specific "overt acts."¹¹

Effects of Administrator Behavior. SCDS Series (Columbus, Ohio: College of Education, Ohio State University, 1956).

⁹R. F. Campbell, "Situational Factors in Educational Administration," Administrative Behavior in Education, R. F. Campbell and R. T. Gregg, editors (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1957), p. 254.

¹⁰Harlan D. Beem, "The County Superintendent Needs Help," Administrator's Notebook, Vol. 2, No. 9 (May, 1954).

¹¹F. G. Cornell, "Socially Perceptive Administration," Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. 36, No. 6 (March, 1955), p. 222.

Campbell states the findings of Jenkins and Blackman as follows:

Those principals who were able to take a middle course in helping a group of teachers organize and work towards a goal, and at the same time maintain a human relations climate, were most effective.¹²

Other Related Studies.

In 1952 the University of Florida College of Education was awarded a Kellogg grant to study the educational leadership of the principal. By August 1958, twenty doctoral dissertations had been written in such fields as the identification of dimensions of behavior, and the measurement and validation of these dimensions in the areas of the principal's relationships with pupils, teachers, and lay citizens.

Grobman sums up the findings of the project by saying:

The more successful principal will operate in a relatively democratic manner when working with teachers individually and as a group, and when working with parents, pupils, and community. He will be familiar with the problems of the level of school he is administering. He will be constant in his pattern of operation, and teachers will know what to expect of him. He will involve others in decisions that concern them. He will bring in the community and parents in school planning and in effecting the plans of the school. He will evaluate the various phases of the school's operation, as a joint endeavor, in which all persons affected by the program will work to analyze its successes and failures.¹³

¹²Campbell, op. cit., p. 254.

¹³Hulda Grobman, Summary of the Findings of the Florida Leadership Project (Gainesville, Florida: College of Education, University of Florida, 1958), p. 1. (mimeographed).

Campbell reports on companion studies by Hess and Clark who examined the administrative behavior of more or less effective elementary and secondary school principals. Hess studied five elementary principals judged to be more effective and five judged to be less effective. He found that the more effective performed in total more administrative acts, and exhibited human relations more frequently than did the less effective.¹⁴ Clark found that the behavior of the effective secondary school principal differed significantly from that of the less effective in the following ways: amount of communication, initiating communication, showing consideration, planning, and delegating responsibility.¹⁵

Smith made a study in which he attempted to relate certain aspects of critical thinking to administrator effectiveness.¹⁶ He developed three dimensions of "philosophic mindedness": comprehensiveness, penetration, and flexibility. He concluded that use of these dimensions by the school administrator was related to his effectiveness in creating the kind of school atmosphere that would nourish and develop the best possible school program.¹⁷

¹⁴Campbell, op. cit., p. 258. ¹⁵Ibid.

¹⁶Philip G. Smith, Philosophic-Mindedness in Educational Administration, SCDS Series (Columbus, Ohio: College of Education, Ohio State University, 1956).

¹⁷Ibid., p. 94.

Sprowles and Smith report on an instrument developed at the University of Georgia for measuring leadership behavior. Thirty-seven competencies with over three hundred administrative actions and practices were presented in question form under three main headings:

1. Carrying out the role of democratic leadership.
2. Working effectively with school personnel.
3. Working effectively with the community and its organizations.¹⁸

Pierce and Merrill say that this instrument has been used widely with principal's groups, with teacher's groups, and as a basis for evaluating and modifying the University of Georgia program for the preparation of principals.¹⁹

Summary.

To summarize briefly this section on the leadership behavior of the principal, it might be stated that forces from without and within the teaching profession are helping to change the principal's position from one of authority to one aimed at offering stimulating leadership to the school

¹⁸L. Sprowles and D. M. Smith, The Principal's Profile (Athens, Georgia: College of Education, University of Georgia, 1956), p. 2. (mimeographed).

¹⁹Truman Pierce and E. C. Merrill, Jr., "The Individual and Administrator Behavior," Administrative Behavior in Education, R. F. Campbell and R. T. Gregg, editors (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1957), p. 340.

system. The manner in which the principal works with other school personnel and the community will greatly determine the extent to which the goals of the system are attained.

II. ROLE AND LEADERSHIP EXPECTATIONS

If the principal and his many reference groups-- teachers, pupils, boards, superintendents, and lay citizens-- agree concerning what is ideal principal behavior, they have a firm foundation on which to build effective working relationships. If, on the other hand, there is lack of agreement with respect to the expectations of how the principal should behave, the principal is left with a difficult task.

Attitudes Towards the Principalship.

Three studies were completed at Stanford University in 1954, dealing with attempts to identify areas of principal behavior which were considered most crucial in determining success or failure in the principal's administrative role. Walters made a study of the job of the high school principal as seen by California city superintendents.²⁰ He interviewed twenty-five superintendents, using the critical incident technique.* He found that the effective principal was

²⁰ T.W. Walters, "The Job of the High School Principal as Perceived by California City Superintendents, "Dissertation Abstracts (Stanford, California: Stanford University, 1954), Vol. 15, p. 1018.

* (By an incident is meant any observable type of

perceived by superintendents as being an able, responsible man of authority who had personal convictions, was decisive, knew the aims of his school, promoted good public relations, respected his staff members and was able to counsel and empathize with them.²¹

Buffington and Medsker attempted to identify some of the job requirements of elementary school principals in Oakland, as perceived by parents and teachers.²² They found that parents and teachers emphasized different aspects of the principal's job in describing what they considered to be effective or ineffective behavior on his part. Teachers saw the chief job of the principal as providing leadership for teachers, while parents saw it as developing effective

human activity which is sufficiently complete in itself to permit inferences and predictions to be made about the person performing this act. To be critical, the incident must be performed in a situation where the purpose or intent of the act seems fairly clear to the observer and its consequences are sufficiently definite so there is little doubt concerning its effects.

Description of "critical incident technique" by Flanagan as quoted in Administrator's Notebook, Vol. IV, No. 1 (September, 1955)].

²¹Walters, loc. cit.

²²R. L. Buffington, "The Job of the Elementary School Principal as Viewed by Parents," Dissertation Abstracts (Stanford, California: Stanford University, 1954), Vol. 14, No. 6, pp. 943-944.

L. L. Medsker, "The Job of the Elementary School Principal as Viewed by Teachers," Dissertation Abstracts (Stanford, California: Stanford University, 1954), Vol. 16, No. 6, pp. 946-947.

relationships with parents' groups and the community. The only expectation the two alter groups entirely agreed upon was that the principal has a responsibility for working with and caring for children.

It was noticeable that neither teachers nor parents saw the job of the principal as being primarily that of curriculum or instructional improvement as such. The emphasis seemed to be on personal relationships with teachers, parents or pupils.

Austin and Collins report on a study which deals with concepts of the role of the principal as found among principals, fellow workers in the school, and the general public.²³

Collins, using the critical incident technique, interviewed twenty-five teachers and a like number of superintendents, lay citizens, high school pupils, and principals. Each interviewee was asked what he believed the high school principal must do or avoid doing to meet his (the interviewee's) expectations. It was found that all answers could be categorized into eleven areas. Included were:

1. Organizing, managing and co-ordinating components of the school.
2. Improving curriculum and teaching.

²³D. B. Austin and J. S. Collins, "A Study of Attitudes Toward the High School Principalship," The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, Vol. 40, No. 216 (January, 1956), pp. 104-140.

3. Gaining the confidence and support of pupils, teachers, and the community.²⁴

With the completion of the Collins study, it was decided to sample attitudes and expectations concerning the principalship on a nationwide basis. A questionnaire, constructed on the basis of Collins' findings was forwarded to samples of principals, superintendents, teachers, pupils, and lay citizens. The conclusions drawn from this study were similar in nature to those of Collins in that the principal was expected to lead in instructional improvement, counsel pupils and parents, and work with teachers.

A study completed by Cheal in 1958 was concerned with discovering conflicts in the expectations held by superintendents, teachers, pupils, and parents toward the role of the composite high school principal.²⁵

Cheal found that the largest percentage of conflict resulted from questions dealing with the instructional program, while the student behavior sector resulted in the smallest.²⁶ It was also noted that pupils and teachers, representing the group in closest day to day contact with the school, were involved in the largest number of inter-

²⁴Ibid., p. 109.

²⁵J. E. Cheal, "Role Conflict in the Principalship of the Composite High School," (Unpublished Master's thesis, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1958).

²⁶Ibid., Abstract.

group conflicts. No one group, however, appeared more susceptible to intra-group conflict than any other, neither did the intensity of conflict show any great variation between groups. Cheal concluded that a major task of the composite high school principal was to harmonize and unify the alter group expectations towards his role.²⁷

Leadership that Teachers Want.

One of the most comprehensive studies showing relationship between leadership and morale was completed by Chase.²⁸ He found that when teachers' expectations were fulfilled with regard to the leadership of the administrator, their morale soared, but when their expectations were not fulfilled, morale dropped. It was concluded that when teachers' expectations were met to a high degree, there were seventy chances in one hundred that they would be enthusiastic about teaching. On the other hand, when teachers' expectations of leadership were poorly met, the chances for enthusiasm were reduced as low as ten in one hundred.²⁹ Moser found that the satisfaction of teachers with the school system in which they worked depended on the extent to which teachers per-

²⁷Ibid., p. 78

²⁸ Francis S. Chase, "Professional Leadership and Teacher Morale," Administrator's Notebook, Vol. 1, No. 8 (March, 1953).

²⁹Ibid.

ceived that the behavior of their administrator met their expectations.³⁰

Chase reported on studies by Yarborough, Scully and Becker, to show how teacher expectations of the leader vary. Yarborough, in a study of Illinois teachers, found administrative support in discipline the most important factor in determining morale.³¹ Scully found that dissatisfaction arose from attitudes or actions of the principal which threatened the individual's social, professional, or economic security. She concluded that "freedom from interference," the principal's availability and willingness to co-operate, and his tendency to regard teachers as co-workers instead of subordinates, contributed greatly to satisfaction.³² According to Chase's own study, teachers in the high morale schools emphasized:

1. Helpfulness in solving problems of instruction, and pupils adjustment.
2. Contributions to the professional growth of teachers.
3. Respect for the teacher's competence, and "democratic" administration.
4. Friendliness, understanding, and interest in the teacher's work.³³

³⁰R. P. Moser, "The Leadership Patterns of School Superintendents and School Principals," Administrator's Notebook, Vol. 6, No. 1 (September, 1957).

³¹Chase, loc. cit.

³²Ibid.

³³Ibid.

Becker found that teachers in the Chicago Public School System had definite expectations of the school principal, and they were dissatisfied when he failed to regard these expectations. Teachers said the principal should:

1. Protect the teacher's authority when face-to-face with parents and pupils, always upholding the teacher, no matter who was at fault.
2. Not "spy" on teachers or give arbitrary orders.
3. Allocate rights and duties "fairly".³⁴

Bidwell attempted to discover the effects upon teacher satisfaction of two kinds of administrative behavior:

1. That which was congruent with the expectations of behavior which teachers held for the administrator.
2. That which diverged from these expectations.³⁵

The results of his study showed that when the behavior of the administrator was seen by the teachers as conforming to their definitions of his role, the teachers rated their satisfaction high. However, when the administrator did not behave in the expected manner, the teachers felt they could not predict his behavior adequately, and hence they felt tense and dissatisfied.³⁶

³⁴Ibid.

³⁵Charles E. Bidwell, "Administration and Teacher Satisfaction," Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. 37 (April, 1956) pp. 285-288.

³⁶Ibid., p. 287.

Another attempt to describe the type of leadership that teachers want was made by Moyer.³⁷ He did a study based on the theory that followers' attitudes and expectations in leadership situations were of crucial importance in determining the success of the activity. He studied these attitudes and expectations of leadership in four elementary and three secondary schools, in four school systems in Illinois. Two instruments were used; one to identify attitudes toward leadership, and the other to measure teacher satisfaction. The results of his findings can be stated as follows:

1. The more alike members are in terms of attitudes towards leadership, the more they are alike in satisfaction received.
2. The greater the unity within the group in their attitudes towards leadership, the higher the satisfaction in the group.
3. The more alike a teaching group is in terms of group-centered attitudes toward leadership, the higher the level of the teacher satisfaction in the group.
4. The extent to which a principal reveals himself to be one who encourages teachers to be less dependent

³⁷Donald C. Moyer, "Leadership that Teachers Want," Administrator's Notebook, Vol. 3, No. 7 (March, 1955).

on him and more interdependent on each other, the higher the teacher satisfaction in the group.³⁸

It was confirmed that teachers do have a mental picture of an "ideal leader" with whom they would like to work. This suggests that the principal should be aware of teacher attitudes and expectations.

According to Campbell, support for Moyer's conclusions came from Shipnuck. Shipnuck analyzed hostility exhibited in the behavior of thirteen elementary principals as perceived by themselves and their teachers. One of his major findings suggest "that a principal is 'best off' in terms of teacher's perceptions of low hostility and high faculty morale who sees himself as his teachers see him."³⁹

Other Related Studies.

A study with special relevance to a section of the present study was completed by Evenson.⁴⁰ The purpose of his study of the leadership behavior of the school principal was to determine the relationship between the principal's own perception of how he behaves, the superintendent's, and the staff's, as well as to ascertain the corresponding relationship between his own beliefs and those of the

³⁸Ibid.

³⁹Campbell, op. cit., p. 252.

⁴⁰Warren L. Evenson, "The Leadership Behavior of High School Principals," (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1958). (microfilm).

superintendent and the staff, concerning how he should behave as a leader. The two leadership dimensions of Consideration and Initiating Structure were measured by the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire. (LBDQ)

Included in his conclusions concerning ideal principal behavior were:

1. Teachers were in statistically significant agreement in their expectations held for their principals on the Consideration dimension.
2. On Consideration the staff expectations differed significantly from school to school.
3. Staff members did not differ from school to school in their expectations for how principals should behave in Initiating Structure.
4. The teachers held a significantly lower level of expectations on the average, for the Consideration dimension, than did principals.
5. Principals and teachers were in general agreement on the average level of ideals held for the principal regarding Initiating Structure.⁴¹

Summary

The following brief quotations summarize three main ideas suggested in this section on role and leadership

⁴¹Ibid., pp. 69-70.

expectations.

1. Administrators are often faced with multiple and conflicting expectations.⁴²
2. Morale or job satisfaction in a school organization depends to a large extent upon similar role expectations of teachers and administrators.⁴³
3. Similarity in role expectations between citizens and administrators is necessary to the "success" of administrators.⁴⁴

III. THE GREAT DILEMMA

Throughout this chapter it has been pointed out that there are often conflicting as well as common expectations among and between alter groups concerning the role of the educational leader. The school principal finds himself facing a great dilemma as he attempts to deal with these conflicting expectations. However, as Campbell states, perhaps even more serious for administrative behavior than the conflicting expectations within and among the reference groups is the conflict the administrator finds between what other people hold he should do, and what he himself believes he should do.⁴⁵ His own perception of his role will often

⁴²Campbell, op. cit., p. 262. ⁴³Ibid., p. 263

⁴⁴Ibid. ⁴⁵Ibid., p. 261.

be a prime factor in determining his actual behavior. Austin and Collins agree that even though the principal will certainly be appreciably influenced by what he believes is expected of him by those within the orbit of his manifold professional activities, it is reasonable to assume that the prime influence in determining the nature of his position will be his own conceptualization of his role.⁴⁶

In the present study an attempt will be made to determine on which expectations there is a high degree of consensus, and on which there is conflict among principals, among teachers, and between principals and teachers in describing the leadership role of the Newfoundland regional and central high school principal.

⁴⁶Austin and Collins, op. cit., pp. 105-106.

CHAPTER IV

THE RESEARCH DESIGN

This chapter is devoted to a discussion of the following topics:

1. A framework for this study.
2. The development of the instrument.
3. The collection of the data.
4. A procedure for the treatment of the data.

I. A FRAMEWORK FOR THIS STUDY

Morris and Seeman have presented a model suggesting an approach to the study of leadership.¹ (See Appendix A) This design, labelled an interdisciplinary approach, has provided a framework within which a large number of studies have been completed at Ohio State University.

The model stresses the fact that the group and individual variables commonly examined in leadership studies may be viewed in five ways: as results of the leader's behavior; as concomitants, determiners, or conditioners of the leader's behavior; and as criteria for evaluation.²

The diagram suggested by Figure 2 is an adapted simplified version of the original by Morris and Seeman.

¹Richard T. Morris and Melvin Seeman, "The Problem of Leadership: An Interdisciplinary Approach," American Journal of Sociology, Vol. 56, No. 2 (September, 1950), pp. 149-155.

²Ibid., p. 149.

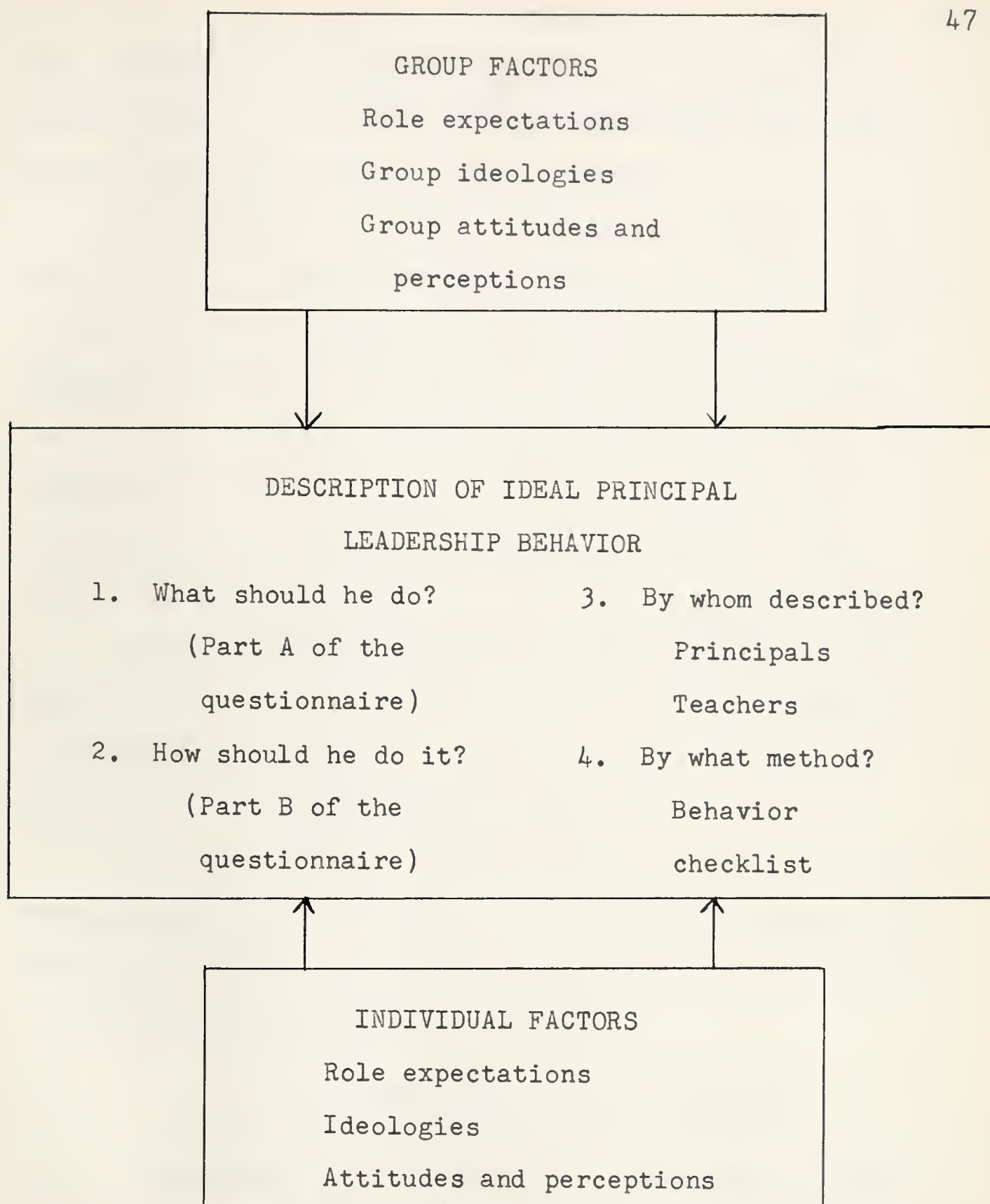


FIGURE 2

A FRAMEWORK FOR THE STUDY OF IDEAL PRINCIPAL LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR

The purpose of presenting this model is to relate the present study to an overall framework within which many studies have been and are being completed.

The present study has as its central point the description of ideal principal behavior. The group factors listed in the top segment of the diagram include: role expectations, group ideologies, and group attitudes and perceptions. In the present study teachers are being asked to describe ideal principal behavior by stating their expectations, ideologies, attitudes, and perceptions of "what" the principal should do and "how" he should do it.

The lower segment of the diagram, labelled individual factors, refers to the principal's role expectations, ideologies, perceptions and attitudes also of "what" he should do and "how" he should do it.

As noted earlier in this thesis, an attempt is being made to ascertain the extent to which certain teacher and principal expectations of the leadership role of the high school principal coincide or conflict.

II. THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE INSTRUMENT

A review of the literature on leadership, the duties and responsibilities of the principal, and teacher-principal relationships enabled the writer to enumerate the tasks generally assigned to the high school principal. This

review included the reading of a number of the more recent studies of the roles of principals and superintendents made available on microfilm. Communication with the University of Florida Leadership Studies, and the University of Georgia, provided valuable background material.

The initial objective was to study the "total" position of the principal, but it was soon apparent from the review of related literature that such an undertaking was overly ambitious. In choosing the three general areas of principal responsibility used in Part A of the questionnaire--working with pupils, working with citizens, and working with teachers--the writer omitted items describing the principal's relationship with such superordinates as supervisors, and the school board. This choice is partially justified by the fact that Newfoundland supervisors have had relatively little opportunity in the past to spend the time they feel they should in these regional and central schools. Also, all too often school boards have been weak in influencing the educational program offered. It was decided to place most emphasis on the principal's relationship with teachers, as this relationship was deemed a key factor in determining school policy.

The writer's decision to choose these three main areas of principal interaction was also influenced by a similar choice in a very extensive study of principal

behavior by Alpren, as part of the University of Florida Leadership Studies. Alpren studied:

1. The principal's relations with teachers as individuals.
2. The principal's relations with teachers as groups.
3. The principal's relations with students.
4. The principal's relations with community members.³

To construct Part A of the questionnaire, the following criteria were established as a basis for selecting behavioral descriptions for the principal in working with pupils, citizens and teachers:

1. Items should describe specific leadership behavior, not traits or characteristics.
2. They should be applicable to the principal in Newfoundland.
3. They should be simply and clearly stated.

Using this general framework, eighty-one items were constructed. The following sources were especially helpful in this initial step:

1. The Principal's Behavior Check List--an instrument developed at the University of Florida to describe principal leadership behavior.
2. The Principal's Profile--developed at the University

³Mimeographed literature received from the University of Florida.

of Georgia.

3. Studies by Cheal, and Austin and Collins; studies already described in the chapter on related studies.

An analysis of the eighty-one items established two main problems: (1) isolating the part of the total behavior of the principal to be designated as leader behavior, and (2) classifying the items into the three assigned categories. An attempt to eliminate items which were ambiguous, and overlapping, and items which did not describe leader behavior as defined for this study, resulted in a reduction to forty-one behavioral descriptions. A preliminary draft of thirty items resulted from:

1. Discussions with fellow graduate students individually and as a group.
2. A discussion with a principal and an assistant principal of an Edmonton Composite High School.
3. Discussions with members of the writer's thesis committee.

A five-category continuum of responses, ranging from Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree, was chosen as best fulfilling the purpose for which the questionnaire was being prepared.

The preliminary draft was submitted to principals and teachers of four of the five schools comprising the

Alberta Five School Project.⁴ These schools were asked to participate in the pilot study because they were similar in nature to a number of those within which the Newfoundland regional and central high school principal operates. As a result of comments and suggestions from four principals and thirty-one teachers, a number of items were slightly modified, and two were replaced. The resulting thirty items constituted the final draft of Part A of the questionnaire. (Appendix B)

Approximately two and a half months after the pilot study had been completed, the writer visited the four schools which had taken part, and received permission to do a retest of the first part of the questionnaire. The teachers and principals who had completed the original were again asked to participate. At the earlier completion, no indication was given that there would be a retest.

The problem of checking the reliability of the responses was somewhat complicated, however, by the fact that those completing the original had not been asked to attach their names or some other means of identification. This meant that the total distribution of responses for each item on the first testing had to be compared with that for the same item on the retest. The correlation of the means

⁴These were high schools at Lacombe, Ponoka, Camrose and Leduc.

of the distributions using a rank-order correlation was .95, whereas the product-moment correlation coefficient was .96.

Part B of the questionnaire is composed of thirty items of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ).^{*} This instrument, developed at Ohio State University, contains fifteen items measuring each of the leadership dimensions of Consideration and Initiating Structure.

Hemphill and Coons describe in detail the development of the LBDQ.⁵ Preliminary work on the instrument took the form of interdisciplinary group discussions of "how" a leader fulfills his role. As a result of these discussions a list of nine leadership dimensions were tentatively designated. These dimensions were:

1. Integration.
2. Communication.
3. Production emphasis.
4. Representation.
5. Fraternalization.

^{*}Permission was received to adapt these items to the present study. (Appendix C).

⁵John K. Hemphill and Alvin E. Coons, "Development of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire," Leader Behavior: Its Description and Measurement, R. M. Stogdill and A. E. Coons, editors (Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1957), pp. 6-38.

6. Organization.
7. Evaluation.
8. Initiation
9. Domination.⁶

The nine areas provided a framework for the collection of specific items of leader behavior. A total of 1,790 items were written by members of the staff of the Personnel Research Board, and members of two advanced university classes. From these items, 150 were selected and arranged in the form of a preliminary questionnaire. Leadership dimensions were then redefined: Recognition replacing Evaluation, Membership replacing Fraternalization, and Communication being split into Communication Up and Communication Down. This resulted in a total of ten dimensions.

The staff decided to use a multiple choice format for the questionnaire. The adverbs: Always, Often, Occasionally, Seldom, and Never, were selected.

Halpin and Winer administered an LBDQ of 130 items to crew members who described aircraft commander behavior.⁷ It was found that the two dimensions of Consideration and Initiating Structure accounted for 83 per cent of the total

⁶Ibid., pp. 11-12.

⁷Andrew W. Halpin and B. James Winer, "A Factorial Study of the Leader Behavior Descriptions," Leader Behavior: Its Description and Measurement, R. M. Stogdill and A. E. Coons, editors (Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1957), pp. 39-51.

factor variance. Although the number of items on the questionnaire was later reduced to eighty, only thirty were considered of major concern: fifteen measuring Consideration and fifteen Initiating Structure. These thirty were the only ones scored in Halpin's study of the real and ideal leadership behavior of the school superintendent,⁸ and Evenson's corresponding study of the behavior of the high school principal.⁹ The items measuring Consideration in the present study are: 1, 2, 5, 7, 8, 9, 11, 14, 15, 18, 20, 22, 25, 27 and 28. The remaining fifteen measure Initiating Structure.

For purposes of analysis, the present instrument sought, in Part C, census-type factual data such as sex, professional training, experience, and size of school system.

III. THE COLLECTION OF DATA

Initially, a list of ten regional and ten central high schools, the total number of such schools in the province, was received from the Newfoundland Department of Education. Letters were forwarded to the principals of these schools seeking the co-operation of principals and

⁸Andrew W. Halpin, The Leadership Behavior of School Superintendents. SCDS Series (Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1956).

⁹Warren L. Evenson, "The Leadership Behavior of High School Principals," (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1958). (Microfilm).

teachers. Included in this letter was a brief description of the study and its purpose. Seventeen principals replied that they would be happy to participate.

The final draft of the questionnaire was printed and forwarded to twenty principals and 119 teachers.¹⁰ With each questionnaire was sent a covering letter further explaining the purpose of the study and suggesting the procedures for returning the completed form. The anonymity of the questionnaire was emphasized, return envelopes were provided, and respondents were encouraged to supply frank and individual answers to each question. (Appendix D). Three weeks after the questionnaires had been distributed, follow-up letters were mailed. (Appendix E). Of the questionnaires forwarded, 90 per cent returns were received from principals and 75 per cent from teachers. Table 1 contains some background data of these respondents.

IV. PROCEDURE FOR THE TREATMENT OF THE DATA

Before discussing briefly a method for analyzing the data, it is necessary to distinguish between the two types of consensus to be described in this study: consensus within each sample and consensus between the two samples.

¹⁰It was decided to estimate the number of teachers in the three schools which failed to respond to the original letter and forward questionnaires. It was also decided to consider these samples as ones from hypothetically large populations.

TABLE I

SEX, TRAINING, RELIGIOUS DENOMINATION AND TOTAL
TEACHING EXPERIENCE OF THE RESPONDENTS*

Information	Principals N	Teachers N
Sex		
Male	15	51
Female	3	38
Training		
Master's degree.	3	7
Bachelor's degree.	13	44
Grade III (Three years of professional training)	--	7
Grade II	--	12
Grade I and below	2	19
Religious Denomination of school		
Roman Catholic	6	36
Anglican	6	24
United Church.	4	15
Amalgamated.	2	14
Total teaching experience		
1-4 years.	1	24
5-9 years.	3	13
10-14 years	3	15
15-19 years	5	10
20 years and over	6	27

*Religious denomination refers to the denomination
of the school in which the respondent is teaching.

Gross, Mason, and McEachern label consensus among members of a sample as intraposition consensus, and consensus between two samples of role definers as interposition consensus.¹¹ Chapter V of this study will deal with consensus among all principals, and among all teachers, whereas Chapter VI will be devoted to findings concerning consensus between principals and teachers.

Because this analysis is primarily an itemized analysis, it was deemed desirable to use I.B.M. equipment to tabulate and analyze results. Appendix F contains a table showing the response distributions for each item.

Consensus Within Samples.

This type of consensus will be sought for each item for each group. The problem statistically was to find an approach which would show which response distributions to single expectation items displayed the most consensus. Gross, Mason, and McEachern state it this way: "Given a series of distributions, each of which is comprised of the set of responses of a sample to a single expectation item with five response categories . . . , how can scores be

¹¹A number of the techniques of analysis used by Gross, Mason, and McEachern in their book, "Explorations in Role Analysis," were very applicable to the present study.

Neal Gross, Ward S. Mason, and Alexander E. McEachern, Explorations in Role Analysis (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1958).

obtained which will rank the items on a continuum of consensus."¹²

It is evident that if all principals or all teachers choose the same response category for any one item, there is perfect consensus within that sample. Similarly, if the frequencies are distributed equally among the five categories, or if 50 per cent of the responses are at one end of the response continuum, and 50 per cent at the other, there is a complete lack of consensus. However, situations where there is perfect or a complete lack of consensus rarely occur. The problem arises, as Gross, Mason, and McEachern suggests, when there are two similar distributions such as those portrayed in Figure 3. Item (a) has one category with a greater percentage of the total sample than any other category in either distribution, whereas the spread in distribution (a) is greater than that in (b).

In view of this problem, it was decided to use the variance of the distribution as the best measure of intra-sample consensus.

Gross, Mason and McEachern suggest the following advantages of using the variance as a measure of intra-position consensus:

1. The variance employs squared deviations, thereby magnifying extreme deviations.

¹²Ibid., p. 105.

2. The variance can be computed relatively easily.
3. The variance is a statistic which lends itself easily to a variety of statistical computations and manipulations.¹³

Before choosing the variance, however, it was necessary to assume that distances between response categories on the continuum were equal. This meant selecting an

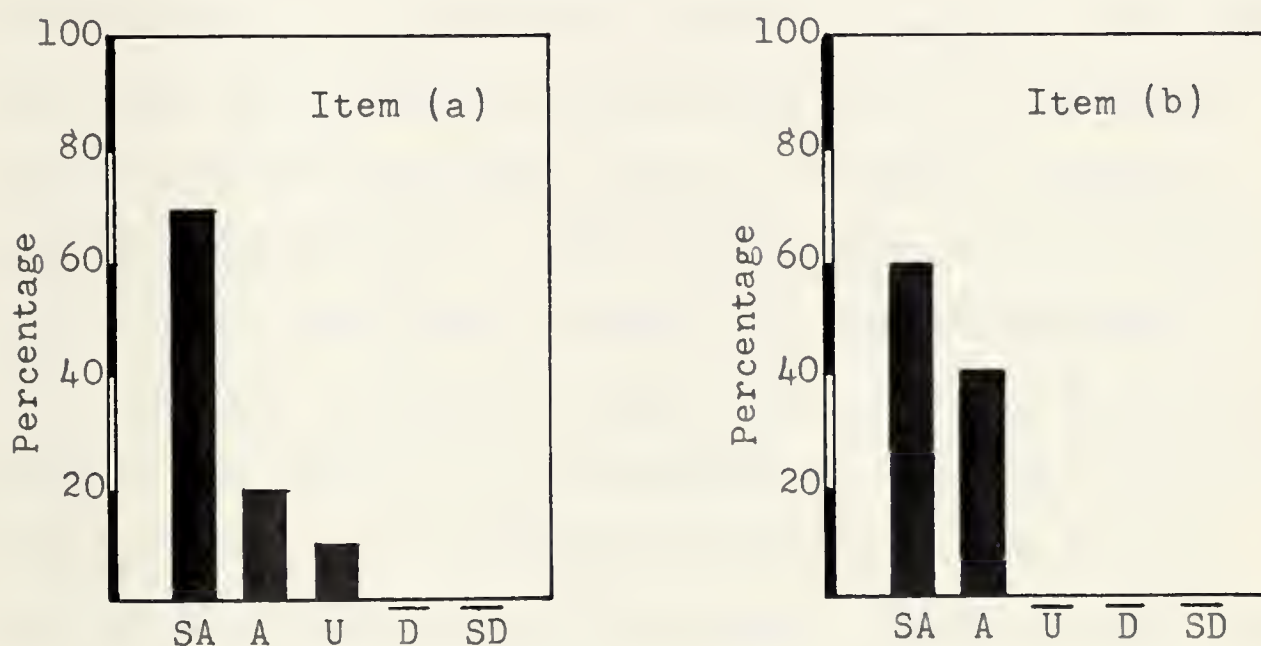


FIGURE 3

EXAMPLES OF PERCENTAGE FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTIONS
OF RESPONSES TO TWO EXPECTATION ITEMS

SA -- Strongly Agree	U -- Undecided
A -- Agree	D -- Disagree
SD -- Strongly Disagree	

¹³Ibid., p. 115.

interval scale. Siegel states that an interval scale is characterized by a common and constant unit of measurement which assigns a real number to all pairs of objects in the ordered set.¹⁴ He further suggests that in an interval scale, the zero point and the unit of measurement are arbitrary. In the present study it is assumed that equal intervals exist between the response categories of each of the continua used. For questions 1-30 in Part A of the questionnaire, the numerical weights 5, 4, 3, 2, and 1 were assigned, corresponding respectively with the response categories Strongly Agree, Agree, Undecided, Disagree, and Strongly Disagree. These values were also assigned to the response categories in Part B of the questionnaire, corresponding respectively with Always, Often, Occasionally, Seldom, and Never.¹⁵ A relatively low numerical value of the variance for the frequency distribution of an item indicates a high degree of consensus, whereas a high variance value corresponds with a low degree of consensus.

The following hypotheses will be tested in the chapter on intraposition consensus:

¹⁴Sidney Siegel, Nonparametric Statistics for the Behavioral Sciences (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1956), p. 26.

¹⁵These values differ from those assigned for obtaining Consideration and Initiating Structure scores, namely 4, 3, 2, 1, and 0, in the chapter on Interposition Consensus.

1. The responses from each sample on each item will vary so that calculated variance scores can be ranked on a continuum of consensus. This means that for principals and for teachers the items of the questionnaire can be ranked from those with high consensus to those with low consensus.
2. There will be more consensus within each questionnaire sample, principals and teachers, on expectation items describing the "what" of leader behavior (Part A items), than on items describing the "how" of leader behavior (Part B items).
3. There will be a significant relationship between expectation responses and such factors as professional training, size of the school system within which the respondent operates, and the respondent's total teaching experience.
4. There will be a significantly high correlation between principal variance scores and corresponding teacher variance scores for items in each of the five questionnaire segments, and on the questionnaire as a whole.¹⁶

¹⁶The items of Part B are classified into two segments, namely Consideration and Initiating Structure. However, this itemized analysis makes no reference to these terms as defined by Halpin on page 24 of this thesis, or as used to obtain Consideration and Initiating Structure scores in Chapter VI.

Consensus Between Samples.

The problem here was to find a statistical technique which would indicate whether the distribution of the responses of principals was significantly different from that of teachers on each item. It was decided to use the F ratio of variances to determine whether there was a significant difference between the variabilities of corresponding distributions.

When there is concern for the "substance" of responses as well as for the presence of agreement or disagreement between distributions, there is need for something more than an F test. It could happen that the F test would show no significant difference between the corresponding "spreads" of the distributions, but principal responses could be clustered at one end of the response continuum and teacher responses at the other. It was decided to use a t test of means to determine whether principals tend to respond to an item in one way and teachers in another. The t test will also help assign a direction to the difference, if one exists.

The conditions which must be satisfied before any confidence can be placed in a probability statement obtained by the use of the t test are:

1. The observations must be independent.
2. The observations must be drawn from normally

distributed populations.

3. The populations must have the same variance (or, in special cases, they must have a known ratio of variances.)
4. The variables involved must have been measured in at least an interval scale, so that it is possible to use the operations of arithmetic (adding, dividing, finding means, etc.) on the scores.¹⁷

With the possible exception of the assumption of equal variances, these conditions were accepted as being met in the present study. When it was found that the variance score of a distribution for principals was significantly different from that for teachers on the same item, a Cochran and Cox test was used to retest the significance of the difference obtained through use of the t test.¹⁸

A t test on the mean scores of teachers and principals for each of Consideration and Initiating Structure will also determine whether there is any significant difference in the way both samples feel towards the principal's leadership on these dimensions.

The following hypotheses will be tested in the chapter on interposition consensus:

¹⁷Siegel, op. cit., p. 19.

¹⁸Francis G. Cornell, The Essentials of Educational Statistics (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1956), p. 237.

1. The responses of principals and teachers on individual items often differ significantly.
2. Where there are significant differences between the corresponding variabilities of principals and teachers on individual items, principal variability scores are smaller.
3. The mean score for teachers on the items describing the leadership dimension of Consideration is significantly lower than that for principals.
4. There is no significant difference between the mean scores for principals and teachers on the Initiating Structure dimension.

CHAPTER V

INTRAPosition CONSENSUS

The purpose of this chapter is to explore the extent of variability in the expectation responses of role definers of the same position towards the leadership role of the high school principal. The chapter will attempt to answer the following questions: On which expectation items is there most consensus and least consensus among principals and among teachers? On which group of items is there most consensus within each of the two samples? Is there a significant relationship between expectation responses and such factors as the size of the school system within which the respondent operates, the professional training of the respondent, and the respondent's total teaching experience? Is there a positive relationship between corresponding variance scores obtained for principals and teachers on each item?

Related findings will be discussed under five main headings suggested by these questions:

1. Consensus among principals.
2. Consensus among teachers.
3. Group of items with most consensus.
4. The relationship between expectations and training, size of school system, and experience of respondents.

5. The correlation between corresponding variances.

I. CONSENSUS AMONG PRINCIPALS

The variability of the expectations of principals will serve as a starting point for the analysis of intra-position consensus. A basic general hypothesis is that variance scores will permit placing items on a continuum of consensus to establish a trend from greatest consensus ("low" variance scores) to least consensus ("high" variance scores).

Part A of the Questionnaire.

In this part of the questionnaire principals were asked whether they strongly agreed, agreed, were undecided, disagreed, or strongly disagreed with thirty suggested leadership activities.

Table II ranks principal expectation items from most to least consensus for each part of the questionnaire.¹ The variance scores for Part A ranged from .056, near perfect consensus, to 1.985, where responses were near equally divided between strongly agree or agree and strongly disagree or disagree. In the case of item 22, 94 per cent of the principals strongly agreed that the principal should

¹This ranking does not imply that all adjacent variances are significantly different. However, it does establish a trend in discussing consensus among principals and among teachers.

TABLE II

RANKED VARIANCE SCORES OF RESPONSE DISTRIBUTIONS
OF THE EXPECTATIONS OF PRINCIPALS

Part A		Part B	
Item Number	Variance Score	Item Number	Variance Score
22	.056	25	.000
15	.104	16	.000
1	.147	22	.056
5	.147	30	.147
10	.147	8	.212
11	.147	24	.301
25	.183	27	.306
9	.235	4	.353
16	.265	13	.369
26	.265	1	.379
28	.265	14	.497
17	.330	10	.500
29	.369	17	.500
21	.379	5	.536
8	.379	21	.575
6	.382	2	.588
3	.565	3	.618
19	.575	20	.644
18	.592	29	.654
12	.654	28	.683
24	.683	9	.693
20	.761	23	.706
23	.824	6	.810
4	.853	15	.824
7	.941	12	.853
13	1.085	26	1.046
30	1.232	19	1.085
2	1.294	11	1.310
27	1.359	18	1.350
14	1.985	7	1.556

give every encouragement to teachers to further their professional training. The remaining 6 per cent agreed. On item 14, however, 53 per cent of the principals strongly agreed or agreed that teachers should refer serious behavioral problems to him only as a last resort, whereas 47 per cent either disagreed or strongly disagreed with this policy. Figure 4 illustrates the response variabilities for these items. Table III contains the content of a number of items from Part A of the questionnaire, discussed as showing a high degree or a low degree of consensus.

Item 15, stating that the principal should be consulted

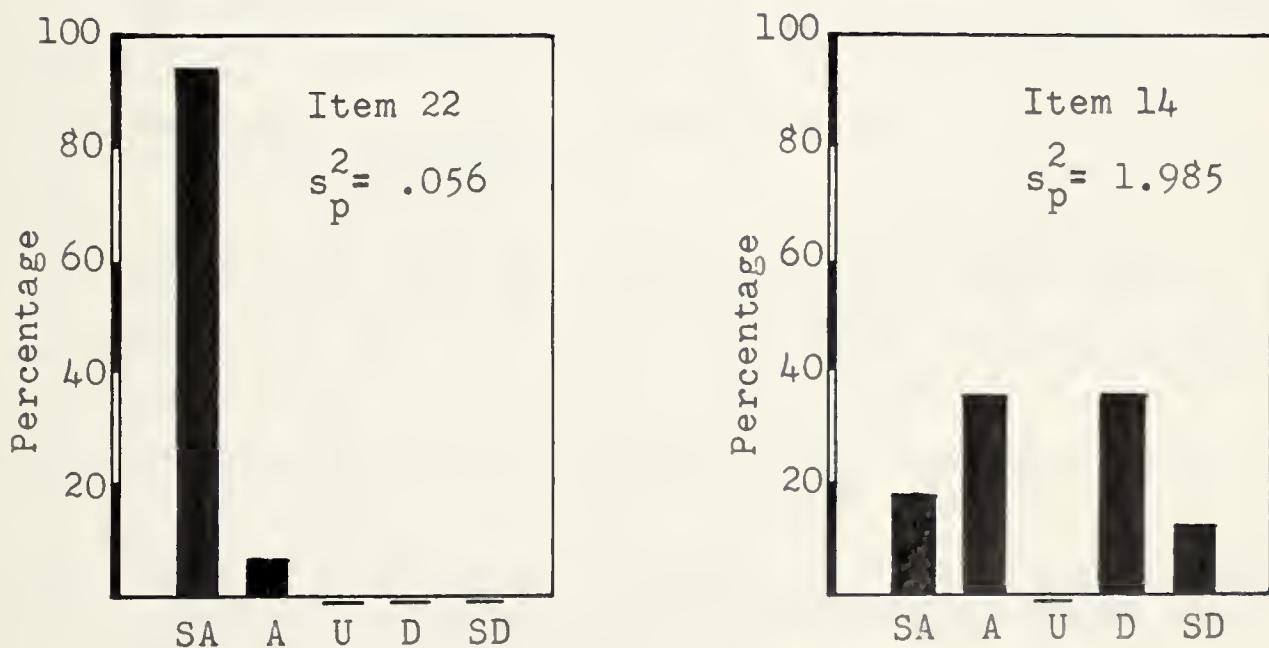


FIGURE 4

PERCENTAGE FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTIONS OF PRINCIPAL RESPONSES
TO TWO EXPECTATION ITEMS

TABLE III
THE CONTENT OF A SELECTION OF ITEMS FROM
PART "A" OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

-
-
1. The principal should encourage pupils to accept definite responsibilities in the operation of the school.
 2. He should be held responsible for providing for adequate and continuous supervision of student activities during noon hours, recess and play periods.
 5. He should hold conferences with pupils and parents to help them reach conclusions regarding educational and vocational plans.
 7. He should provide leadership in some church activities.
 10. He should invite parents and other lay citizens to attend assemblies and other school programs.
 11. He should evaluate the quality of teaching and learning in the classroom, so that he can aid improvement.
 13. He should give his non-teaching time primarily to classroom supervision.
 14. He should encourage teachers to refer serious behavioral problems to him only as a last resort.
 15. He should be consulted in decisions concerning the appointment of teachers to the staff.
 22. He should give every encouragement to teachers to improve their educational qualifications.
 27. He should establish as one of the prime aims of the school the obtaining of higher results in the provincial examinations.
 30. The principal should assist the supervisor in rating teachers.
-
-

in decisions concerning the appointment of teachers to his staff, solicited a high degree of consensus, as did item 22. It is also apparent from Table II, page 68, that there was strong agreement on items 1, 5, 10, and 11. Eighty-three per cent of the principals strongly agreed that the principal should encourage pupils to accept definite responsibilities in the operation of the school; that he should hold conferences with pupils and parents to discuss educational and vocational plans; that he should invite parents and other lay citizens to attend assemblies and other school functions; and finally, that he should evaluate the quality of teaching and learning in the classroom so that he can aid improvement. On each item, the remaining 17 per cent agreed with these statements.

Six of the items displaying least consensus were items 7, 13, 30, 2, 27, and 14. Although there were principals who disagreed with statement 7, that the principal should provide leadership in some church activities, 78 per cent either strongly agreed or agreed that he should. It was also interesting to note the relatively low degree of consensus on item 13. Of the eighteen principals, three strongly agreed and eight agreed that the principal should give his non-teaching time primarily to classroom supervision. However, four disagreed and three were undecided.

Responses to the statement that the principal should

assist the supervisor in rating teachers also ranged from strongly agree to disagree. Although the range of responses was slightly greater on item 2, from strongly agree to strongly disagree, 78 per cent of the principals either strongly agreed or agreed that the principal should be responsible for providing for adequate and continuous supervision of student activities during noon hour, recess, and play periods. No principal either strongly disagreed or strongly agreed that the principal should place primary emphasis on obtaining high results in provincial examinations. Fifty per cent of the principals agreed, 28 per cent disagreed, while 22 per cent were undecided. Figure 5 presents a percentage histogram for this item as well as for item 13.

The items discussed in this section as possessing a high degree of consensus were items 22, 15, 1, 5, 10, and 11 from Part A of the questionnaire. The range of variances for these items was from .056 to .147. The range of variances for the items discussed as showing a low degree of consensus, items 7, 13, 30, 2, 27, and 14, was from .941 to 1.985. These two sets of items were selected from the extremes of the consensus continuum contained in Table II, page 68, because it was assumed that the difference between the variance for item 11 (.147) was significantly different from

that for item 7 (.941).² This procedure for selecting items showing a high degree of consensus, and items showing a low degree of consensus, was also used in Part B for principals, and Parts A and B for teachers.

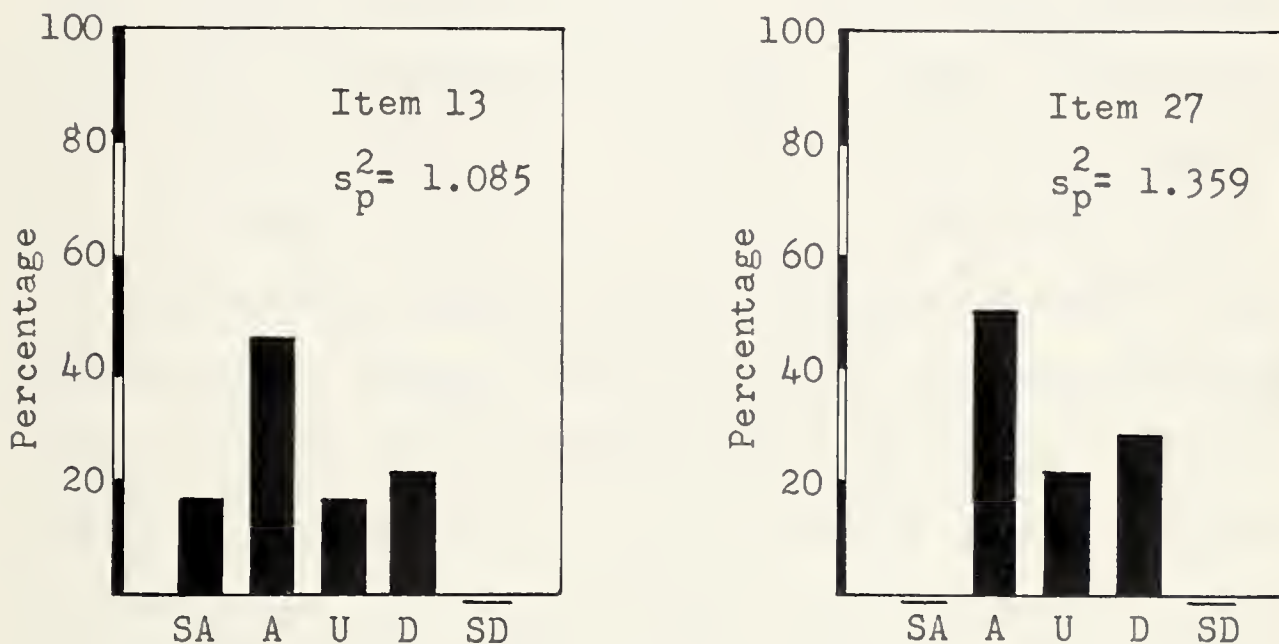


FIGURE 5

PERCENTAGE FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTIONS OF PRINCIPAL RESPONSES
TO TWO EXPECTATION ITEMS

Part B of the Questionnaire.

In this part of the questionnaire principals were

²An F test of the ratio of variances shows that the difference is significant at the .01 level. ($F = \frac{.941}{.147} = 6.40$) However, the F test assumes that the observations are independent, which is not the case in this example. This is why the researcher has stated that "it is assumed" that these variances are significantly different.

asked to choose the frequency with which the principal should behave in the suggested manner. Possible answers to each item included always, often, occasionally, seldom, and never. A selection of these items is found in Table IV.

This part contained two items on which there was perfect consensus among principals. It was agreed that the principal should never work without a plan, and that he should always make his staff members feel at ease when talking with them. Ninety-four per cent of the principals agreed that the principal should always be friendly and approachable, whereas the other 6 per cent checked often. There was also little variability on statements that the principal should see to it that the work of the staff was co-ordinated; that the principal should be easily understood; and that he should make sure that his part in the school system was understood by all members, items 30, 8, and 24 respectively. All principals checked always or often for items 30 and 8, whereas seventeen of the eighteen chose always or often for item 24. Figure 6, page 76, contains a percentage histogram of item 30.

More variability occurred, however, when principals were asked to decide the frequency with which the principal should ask his staff to follow standard rules and regulations, item 26. Responses ranged from always to seldom. Another item describing the principal's responsibility in

TABLE IV
THE CONTENT OF A SELECTION OF ITEMS FROM
PART "B" OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

-
-
7. He should treat all staff members as his equals.
 8. He should be easy to understand.
 11. He should look out for the personal welfare of individual staff members.
 12. He should criticize poor work.
 16. He should work without a plan.
 18. He should be slow to accept new ideas.
 19. He should maintain definite standards of performance.
 22. He should be friendly and approachable.
 24. He should make sure that his part in the school system is understood by all members.
 25. He should make his staff members feel at ease when talking with them.
 26. He should ask the staff members to follow standard rules and regulations.
 30. He should see to it that the work of staff members is co-ordinated.
-
-

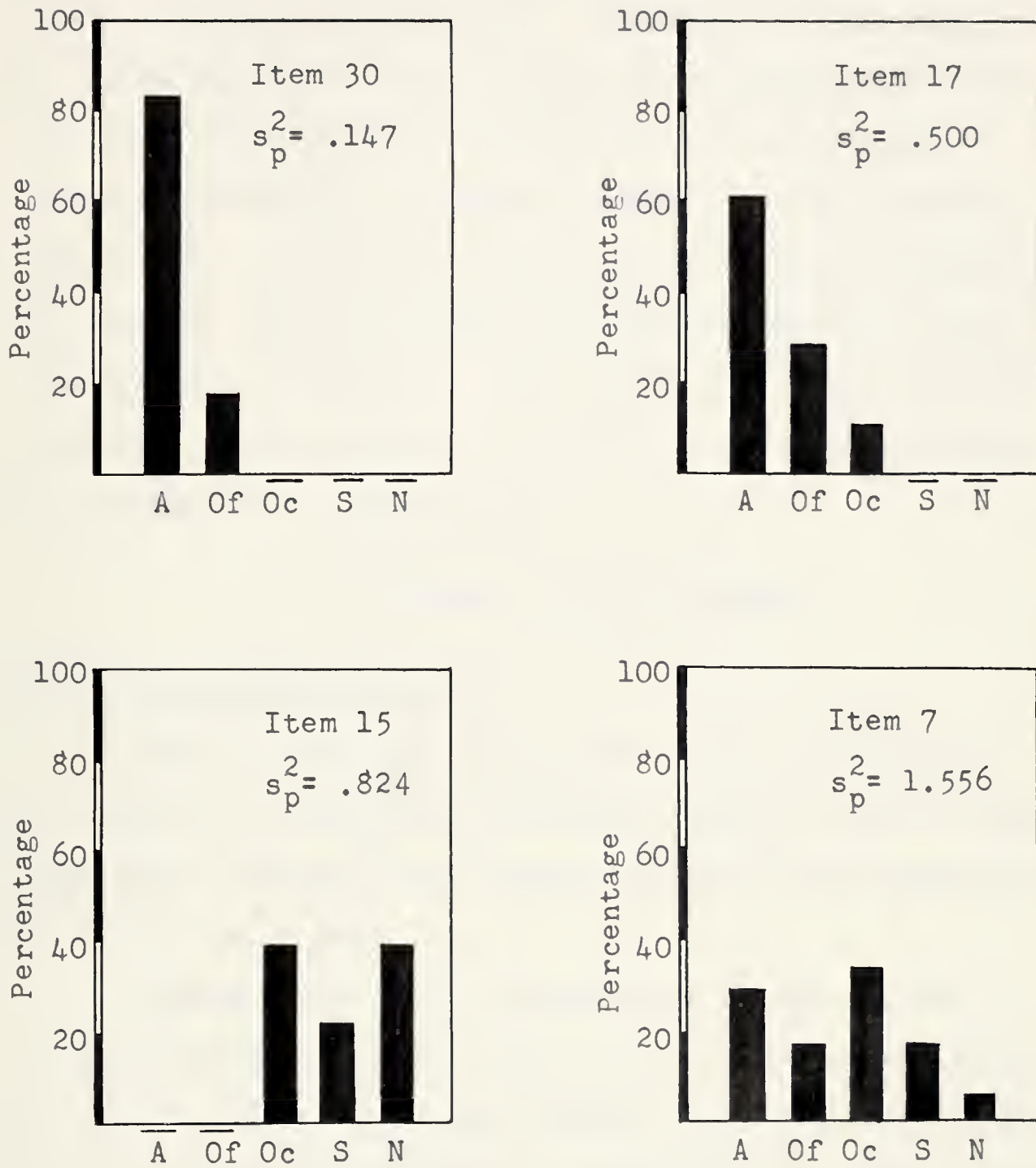


FIGURE 6

PERCENTAGE FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTIONS OF PRINCIPAL RESPONSES
TO FOUR EXPECTATION ITEMS

maintaining definite standards of performance, solicited a similar response distribution. Responses to the item that the principal should look out for the personal welfare of individual staff members ranged from always to never. Greatest variability occurred, however, on item 7 which stated that the principal should treat all staff members as his equals. The percentage distribution for this item is illustrated in Figure 6. This figure also contains histograms for items 17, and 15, which have variability scores between those of items 30 and 7.

II. CONSENSUS AMONG TEACHERS

Part A of the Questionnaire.

Table V ranks the expectation items according to the amount of consensus shown among teachers. Six of the items which received low consensus scores were numbers 17, 22, 25, 5, 16, and 8.

Eighty-seven of the eighty-nine teachers either strongly agreed or agreed that the principal should defend the school and its personnel against unwarranted criticism. There was also a high degree of consensus on item 22, that the principal had a responsibility to encourage teachers to improve their educational qualifications. Ninety-eight per cent of the teachers either strongly agreed or agreed that the principal should arrange joint staff meetings with

TABLE V

RANKED VARIANCE SCORES OF RESPONSE DISTRIBUTIONS
OF THE EXPECTATIONS OF TEACHERS

Part A		Part B	
Item Number	Variance Score	Item Number	Variance Score
17	.239	25	.119
22	.314	22	.128
25	.342	8	.263
5	.468	30	.313
16	.478	27	.318
8	.491	4	.391
9	.499	19	.427
15	.503	1	.429
3	.541	14	.435
1	.571	15	.533
11	.577	28	.635
10	.604	21	.659
12	.614	23	.724
29	.615	24	.726
26	.624	16	.775
24	.683	20	.787
20	.718	2	.788
18	.723	9	.794
6	.748	17	.814
28	.762	6	.829
23	.820	29	.853
4	.848	3	.877
21	.877	5	.954
2	.992	12	.978
19	1.080	26	1.086
30	1.147	10	1.306
7	1.342	18	1.507
13	1.357	7	1.755
14	1.406	13	1.790
27	1.576	11	1.893

feeder schools within the system, to further the co-ordination of efforts.

Ranking fourth numerically on the continuum of consensus was the item which accorded the principal the responsibility of holding discussions with pupils and parents regarding educational and vocational plans. This item also ranked fourth on the principal continuum. Although the responses of teachers to item 16 ranged from strongly agree to strongly disagree, some 96 per cent either strongly agreed or agreed that the principal should assign extra-curricular activities among his staff, with due consideration to such factors as teaching load, interest, and health. Over 90 per cent of the teacher respondents agreed or strongly agreed that the principal should accept invitations to speak to lay organizations on educational topics.

Among the items which received the greatest response variability were numbers 19, 30, 7, 13, 14, and 27. Seventeen teachers were undecided whether the principal should delegate definite non-teaching responsibilities to his teachers, with full authority to act as they see fit. Sixty teachers reacted favourably to this statement, while twelve either disagreed or strongly disagreed. There was similar variability on item 30, which stated that the principal should assist the supervisor in rating teachers. Fourteen teachers were undecided as to whether or not the principal

should play an active leadership role in church activities. Twenty-eight teachers either disagreed or strongly disagreed with this policy. This distribution for item 7 is illustrated in Figure 7.

As was the case with principals, teachers varied in their attitudes of whether the principal should give his non-teaching time primarily to classroom supervision. Although 60 per cent of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed with this item, over 20 per cent disagreed or strongly disagreed. Items 14 and 27 ranked twenty-ninth and thirtieth on the teachers' continuum of consensus, whereas they ranked thirtieth and twenty-ninth on the principals' continuum. The response distribution for item 27, which stated that the principal should place primary emphasis on obtaining higher results in the provincial examinations, approached the distribution of a normal curve.

Three of the item distributions of Figure 7, numbers 2, 4, and 24, although not discussed here as being high in response variability, display intraposition conflict on behaviors often considered desirable for the successful principal.

Part B of the Questionnaire.

In this part, variance scores ranged from .119 for item 25, to 1.893 for item 11. Eighty-four of the eighty-

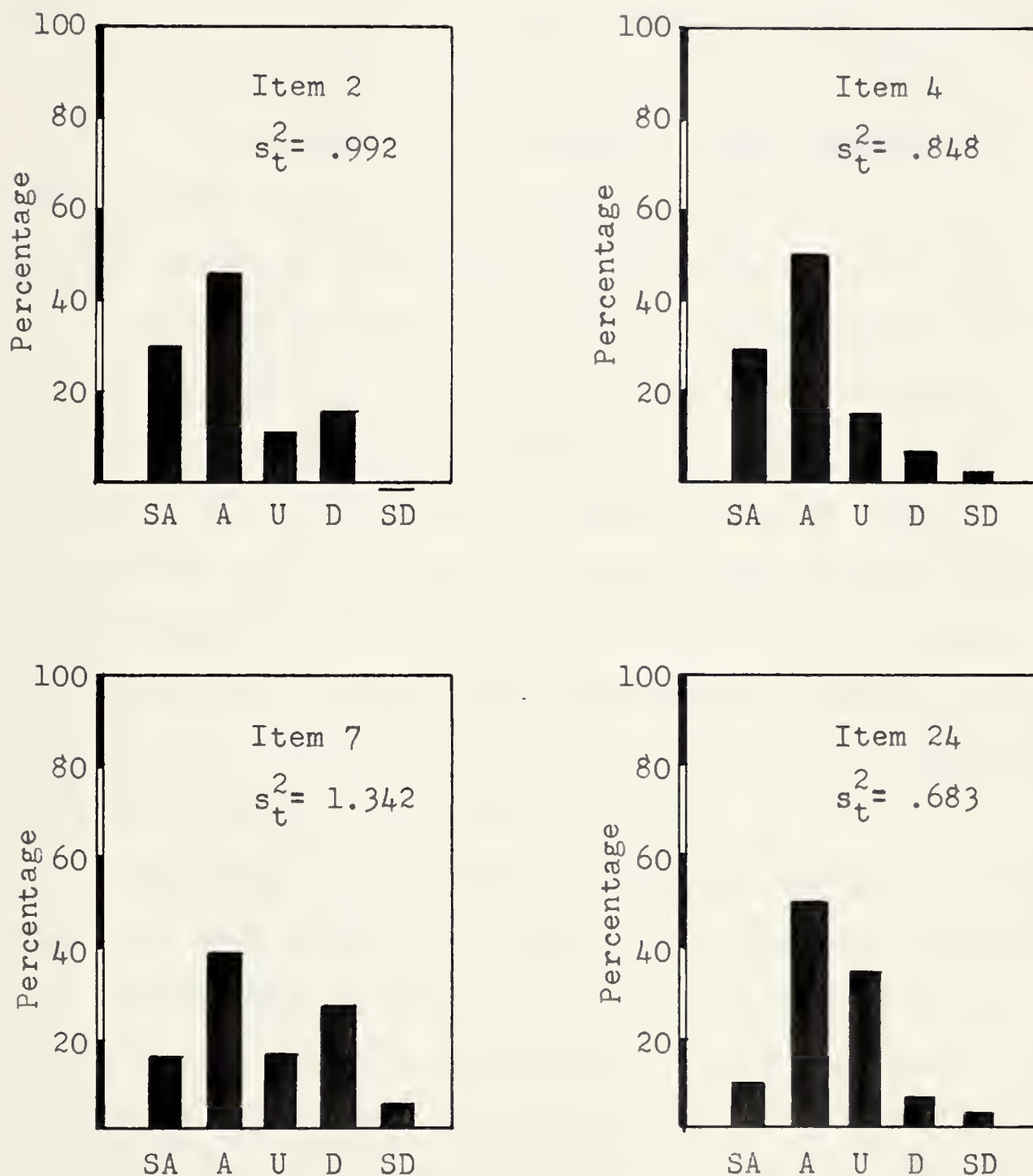


FIGURE 7

PERCENTAGE FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTIONS OF TEACHER RESPONSES
TO FOUR EXPECTATION ITEMS

nine teachers agreed that the principal should always make his staff members feel at ease when talking with them, item 25. However, on item 11, twenty-three teachers stated that the principal should always look out for the personal welfare of individual staff members, eight checked often, twenty-eight occasionally, fourteen seldom, and twelve never. Figure 8 illustrates the conflict on this item.

Closely related to the high consensus distribution on item 25, is that on item 22. Eighty-three teachers agreed that the principal should always be friendly and approachable. Another item, number 8, with a similar connotation, also received relatively high consensus when seventy-eight teachers stated that the principal should always be easy to understand. Responses to these items substantiate a modern feeling that staff members expect leaders to foster good human relations.

Teachers also expressed strong agreement that the principal should see to it that the work of staff members was co-ordinated, item 30. Eighty-five teachers checked either always or often in response to this statement. On item 27 responses were near equally divided between often and occasionally in describing the frequency with which the principal should put suggestions by the staff into operation. Only three teachers checked always. Seventy-one teachers stated that the principal should always make his attitudes

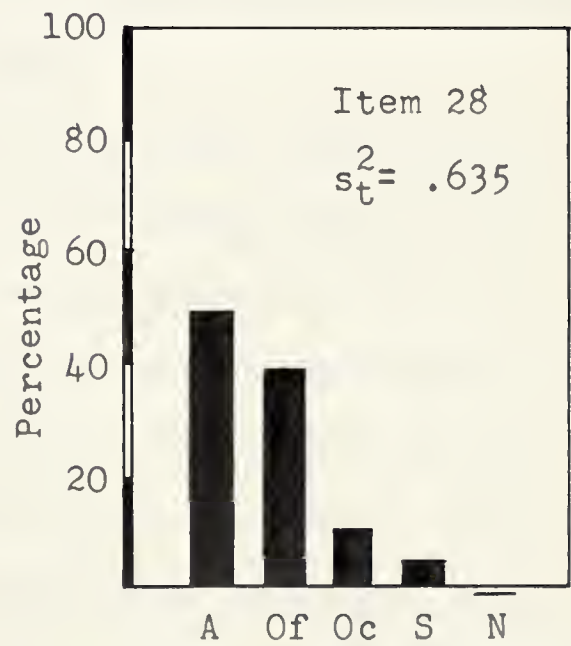
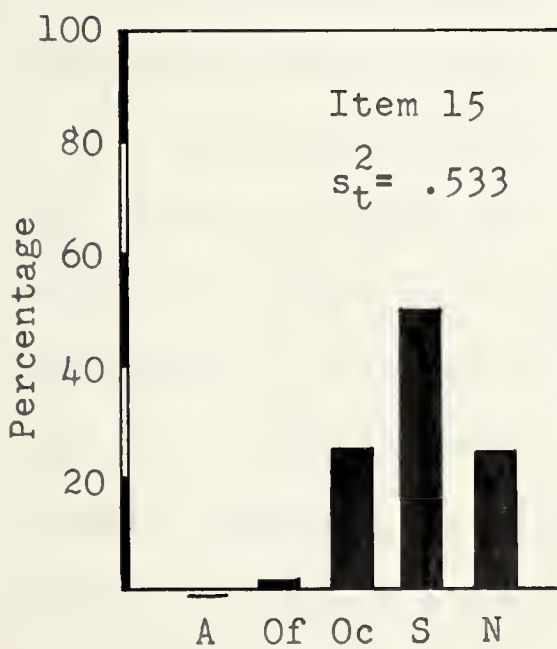
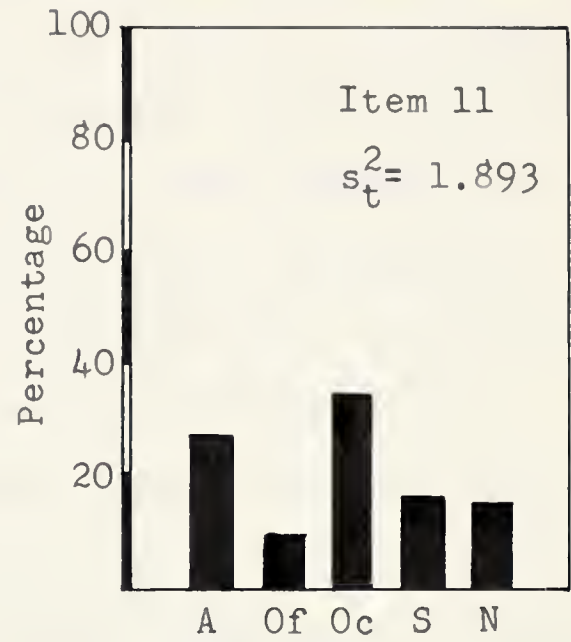
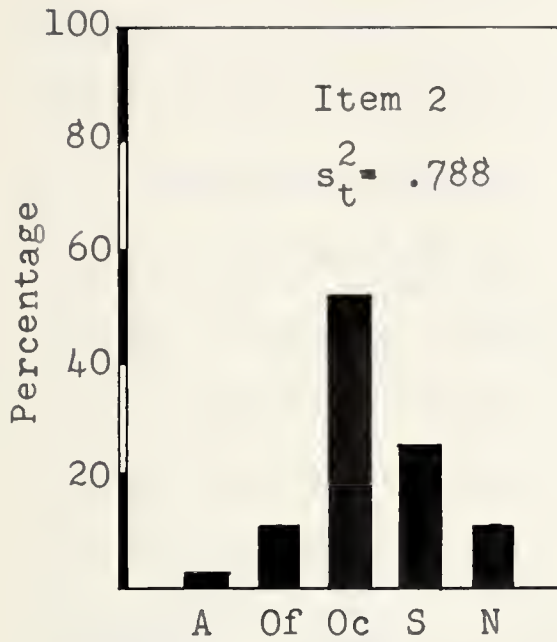


FIGURE 8

PERCENTAGE FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTIONS OF TEACHER RESPONSES
TO FOUR EXPECTATION ITEMS

clear to his staff, in response to item 4.

Six of the items with the greatest response variability were numbers 26, 10, 18, 7, 13, and 11. Although fifty teachers stated that the principal should always ask staff members to follow standard rules and regulations, nineteen checked often, and nineteen one of occasionally, seldom, or never. Responses to item 10, that the principal should rule with an iron hand, although concentrated primarily at the response category never, included twenty-two answers checking one of always, often, or occasionally. Although responses to item 18 ranged from always to never, twenty-nine of the teachers selected occasionally, sixteen seldom, and twenty-four never, as to how often the principal should be slow to accept new ideas.

It was interesting to note that the variability on how often the principal should treat staff members as his equals was numerically greater among teachers than among principals. Although forty-four teachers agreed that the principal should always treat them as his equals, eleven checked occasionally, six seldom and eight never. Also, in response to the frequency with which the principal should speak in a manner not to be questioned, item 13, thirty teachers chose always, often or occasionally. It would, therefore, be reasonable to assume that there was a portion of the teacher sample which preferred what has generally

been classified as an "authoritarian" principal.

Figure 8 illustrates the percentage histograms for three items, numbers 2, 15, and 28, which have variability scores which lie between those of the items discussed as having "high" consensus and those displaying "low" consensus.

III. THE GROUP OF ITEMS WITH MOST CONSENSUS

It was hypothesized that there would be more consensus among principals and among teachers on "what" they expected the principal to do, than on "how" they expected him to behave in performing his duties. More specifically, it was hypothesized that for each sample the number of items falling into a "high" consensus category from Part A of the questionnaire would be significantly higher than the corresponding number from Part B of the questionnaire.

To test this prediction, the following method was used. The cut-off variance above which and below which "high" and "low" variance scores were classified, was the mean variance of all the item variances for the sample. In the case of principals the mean variance was .590, whereas for teachers the mean variance was .774.

Table VI contains the results of this classification for principals. Eighteen of the items in Part A were classified as showing "high" consensus and twelve "low" consensus. In Part B of the questionnaire the corresponding numbers

were sixteen and fourteen. The chi-squared value for these distributions, corrected for continuity, was .30. This value was not significant at the .05 level of confidence. Hence, the finding did not lend support to the hypothesis that there was more consensus among principals on expectations describing the "what" of principal behavior than on those describing the "how".

TABLE VI

PERCENTAGE OF THE ITEMS FROM PARTS "A" AND "B" OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE CLASSIFIED INTO "HIGH" AND "LOW" CONSENSUS CATEGORIES FOR THE PRINCIPAL SAMPLE

	Consensus Category		N	
	"High"	"Low"		
Part A of the Questionnaire	18	12	30	χ^2 not
Part B of the Questionnaire	16	14	30	Significant

The results of the classification into "high" and "low" consensus categories for teachers are found in Table VII. Twenty of the first thirty variance scores fell into the "high" consensus category, compared with fourteen of the variance scores from Part B of the questionnaire. The chi-squared value for these distributions, also corrected for continuity, was 4.05. This value was significant at the

.05 level of confidence. The finding supported the hypothesis in the case of teachers. There was a significantly higher proportion of the items in the "high" consensus category from Part A of the questionnaire than from Part B.

TABLE VII

PERCENTAGE OF THE ITEMS FROM PARTS "A" AND "B" OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE CLASSIFIED INTO "HIGH" AND "LOW" CONSENSUS CATEGORIES FOR THE TEACHER SAMPLE

	Consensus Category		N	
	"High"	"Low"		
Part A of the Questionnaire	20	10	30	χ^2 Significant at .05 level
Part B of the Questionnaire	14	16	30	

IV. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EXPECTATIONS AND TRAINING, SIZE OF SCHOOL SYSTEM, AND EXPERIENCE OF RESPONDENTS

The third hypothesis tested in this chapter stated that there would be a relationship between expectation responses and such factors as the professional training of the respondent, the size of the school system in which respondents operated, and the respondent's total teaching experience.

This hypothesis led to the predictions that there would be a significant difference between the expectations of:

1. Teachers with degrees and teachers without degrees.
2. Teachers in "large" systems and teachers in "small" systems.
3. Teachers with "more" experience and teachers with "less" experience.²

To facilitate this analysis, items were grouped according to the five questionnaire segments. For each segment the total of the frequencies in each response category was obtained. This permitted the calculation of mean and variance scores for the total segment distribution.

In Table VIII are found the resulting mean and variance scores for each of the five segments for teachers with degrees and teachers without degrees. The mean score for teachers with degrees on the first five items describing a principal's relationships in working with pupils was 4.18. The corresponding mean score for teachers without degrees was 4.22. The variances for the distributions of responses

²Because over 50 per cent of the teachers responding had either a master's or a bachelor's degree, the degree-non degree division seemed appropriate. A school with ten or more teachers on the staff was classified as a "large" school, while teachers with ten or more years of teaching experience were classified as having "more" experience. These divisions also provided sufficient numbers of teachers in each category to make a statistical analysis feasible.

for teachers with and without degrees were .794 and .645 respectively. The use of a t test of means, and the F ratio of variances confirmed that no significant difference existed between the means or the variability of responses for the combined frequencies of the first group of items. It was also found that no significant differences existed between corresponding mean and variance scores for the remaining four groups of items designated in Table VIII.

TABLE VIII

MEAN AND VARIANCE SCORES FOR RESPONSES TO EACH OF THE FIVE
QUESTIONNAIRE SEGMENTS FROM TEACHERS WITH DEGREES
AND TEACHERS WITHOUT DEGREES

Segment	WITH DEGREES		WITHOUT DEGREES		Sig.
	N=51		N=38		
	\bar{X}_d	s_d^2	\bar{X}_n	s_n^2	
Working with Pupils	4.18	.794	4.22	.645	Not sig. ^a
Working with Citizens	3.94	1.036	4.23	.634	Not sig.
Working with Teachers	4.00	1.101	4.04	.820	Not sig.
Consideration	3.52	1.291	3.51	2.144	Not sig.
Initiating Structure	3.81	1.833	3.81	2.128	Not sig.

^aNo significant difference between the means, using a t test, or between the variances, using an F test.

Table IX presents the findings concerning the mean and variance scores of the expectations of teachers from

"large" systems and "small" systems. Again the differences between the means and the variances were slight, showing no statistical significance.

TABLE IX

MEAN AND VARIANCE SCORES FOR RESPONSES TO EACH OF THE FIVE QUESTIONNAIRE SEGMENTS FROM TEACHERS WORKING IN "LARGE" SYSTEMS AND TEACHERS IN "SMALL" SYSTEMS

Segment	"LARGE" SYSTEMS N=55		"SMALL" SYSTEMS N=34		Sig.
	\bar{X}_1	s_1^2	\bar{X}_s	s_s^2	
Working with Pupils	4.15	.727	4.28	.750	Not sig. ^a
Working with Citizens	4.05	.862	4.08	.922	Not sig.
Working with Teachers	3.96	.988	4.10	.963	Not sig.
Consideration	3.43	2.080	3.65	1.899	Not sig.
Initiating Structure	3.77	1.692	3.87	1.964	Not sig.

^aNo significant difference between the means, using a t test, or between the variances, using an F test.

A similar conclusion resulted from an analysis of the responses from teachers with "more" experience and teachers with "less" experience. Table X contains the corresponding scores.

The findings did not lend support to the hypothesis that expectations vary significantly with the amount of

professional training; with the size of the school system within which the respondents operated; or with the respondents' total teaching experience.

TABLE X

MEAN AND VARIANCE SCORES FOR RESPONSES TO EACH OF THE FIVE QUESTIONNAIRE SEGMENTS FROM TEACHERS WITH "MORE" EXPERIENCE AND TEACHERS WITH "LESS" EXPERIENCE

Segment	"MORE" EXPERIENCE N=52		"LESS" EXPERIENCE N=37		Sig.
	\bar{X}_m	s_m^2	\bar{X}_1	s_1^2	
Working with Pupils	4.24	.797	4.12	.683	Not sig. ^a
Working with Citizens	4.12	.896	3.99	.858	Not sig.
Working with Teachers	4.05	.978	3.97	.983	Not sig.
Consideration	3.60	1.902	3.42	2.193	Not sig.
Initiating Structure	3.78	2.041	3.86	1.833	Not sig.

^aNo significant difference between the means, using a t test, or between the variances, using an F test.

V. THE CORRELATION BETWEEN CORRESPONDING VARIANCES

The final hypothesis tested in this chapter stated that there would be a positive relationship between the variance scores obtained from the two samples.

Rank order correlations were calculated for the corresponding variance scores for each of the following

groups of items: items 1 to 5, items 6 to 10, items 11 to 30, items 1, 2, 5, 7, 8, 9, 11, 14, 15, 18, 20, 22, 25, 27, and 28, and finally items 3, 4, 6, 10, 12, 13, 16, 17, 19, 21, 23, 24, 26, 29, and 30. The groups comprising the first thirty items correspond with the three segments in Part A of the questionnaire, and the final two with the two segments in Part B. A correlation was then calculated between the variances for all items of the questionnaire.

The resulting correlations are presented in Table XI. Primarily because of the relatively low N for the initial two segments, the correlation coefficients of .82 and .60 were not significant at the .05 level of confidence. The measure of association or relationship obtained for the third segment, however, was significant at the .01 level, as was the correlation for the item variances classified under "Consideration." The correlation for the final segment variances was not significant, whereas the correlation for all sixty sets of variances was significant at the .01 level of confidence. The three correlations which were found to be significant might indicate that for the items of these segments, the variability of the responses of principals was similar to that of teachers.

TABLE XI
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN THE VARIANCE SCORES
OBTAINED BY PRINCIPALS AND TEACHERS

Questionnaire Segment	N	r_s	Level of Significance
Working with Pupils	5	.82	Not
Working with Citizens	5	.60	Not
Working with Teachers	20	.81	.01
Consideration	15	.89	.01
Initiating Structure	15	.25	Not
All Segments	60	.70	.01

VI. SUMMARY

In this chapter on intraposition consensus, an attempt has been made to examine the consensus within each of two samples on a selection of expectation items describing the leadership role of the high school principal. Four main hypotheses have been tested.

First, items were ranked from those soliciting a high degree of consensus to those with distributions displaying a low degree of consensus. Discussion was confined to a selection of items from the extremes of the continua.

Included in the items which solicited a high degree of consensus among principals were items describing the

principal's responsibility in counselling students, encouraging teachers to further their training, evaluating the quality of teaching and learning, being friendly, approachable, and understanding, and co-ordinating teacher efforts. There was a high degree of conflict on whether the principal should spend his non-teaching time primarily on classroom supervision; on whether he should provide for supervision of extra curricular activities, help supervisors rate teachers, treat staff members as his equals, and serve only as a last resort in dealing with serious behavioral problems.

Teachers appeared to agree that the principal should defend the school against unwarranted criticism, co-ordinate activities within the system, assign extra curricular activities equally among the staff, with due consideration to such things as teaching load and interest, and always be understanding and willing to help. Included in the items showing a low degree of consensus among teachers were items suggesting a principal's responsibility in helping supervisors rate teachers, providing leadership in church activities, supervising teachers, treating staff members as his equals, and looking out for the personal welfare of individual teachers.

The second hypothesis, stating that there would be more consensus within each group on items describing "what" the principal should do than on items describing "how" he

should behave in fulfilling his role, received support from the teacher sample only. No support was received for the hypothesis that there would be a significant difference between the expectation responses of: (a) teachers with degrees and teachers without degrees, (b) teachers in "large" systems and teachers in "small" systems, and (c) teachers with "more" experience and teachers with "less" experience. For two of the questionnaire segments, working with teachers, and Consideration, and for the questionnaire as a whole, there was a significant correlation between the variance scores for principals and the corresponding scores for teachers.

CHAPTER VI

INTERPOSITION CONSENSUS

The primary purpose of this chapter is to discuss the findings related to consensus between the two sets of role definers. The basic problem is to determine whether a comparison of the responses of principals and teachers to identical expectation items, indicates a measure of agreement or disagreement between the two samples.

In this chapter an attempt will be made to answer the following questions: What are a number of the significant expectations on which there is relatively high consensus within each sample group and between the two groups? On which expectation items is there a significant difference between principal and teacher responses? Where such a difference exists between the variability of responses, is there greater variability among teachers than among principals? Is there a significant difference between the mean scores of principals and teachers for each of the two dimensions of leadership; Consideration and Initiating Structure?

Answers to the first three questions will be sought through a discussion of each of the questionnaire segments. The basic general hypothesis is that there are different degrees of consensus between principals and teachers on individual expectation items. It is also hypothesized that

where significant differences do exist between variabilities of responses, there is more variability among teachers than among principals.

I. WORKING WITH PUPILS

The mean scores and variance scores for principals and teachers on items 1 to 5 are contained in Table XII. On two of these items there was no significant difference between corresponding means or variances. On one other item there was no significant difference between the spread of responses, but a significant difference between the mean scores of principals and teachers. On two items there were significant differences between both means and variances.

Although there was no significant difference between the two distributions for item 2, it could hardly be said that there was agreement between principals and teachers that principals should provide for adequate and continuous supervision of student activities during noon-hours, recess, and play periods. As pointed out in Chapter V, and illustrated in Figure 9, there was little consensus within either sample on this item, but no significant difference between the two distributions.

There was also considerable variability within each sample group on whether the principal should involve pupils in the planning of school policy which related directly to

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE MEAN SCORES AND VARIANCE SCORES OF
PRINCIPALS AND TEACHERS FOR INDIVIDUAL ITEMS ON THE
QUESTIONNAIRE SEGMENT "WORKING WITH PUPILS"

PART A Item	X_p	X_t	D	Sig.	s_p^2	s_t^2	F	Sig.
1	4.83	4.48	.35	.01	.147	.571	3.88	.01
2	4.00	3.91	.09	Not	1.294	.992	1.30	Not
3	4.72	4.32	.40	.05	.565	.541	1.04	Not
4	4.17	3.96	.21	Not	.853	.848	1.00	Not
5	4.83	4.31	.52	.01	.147	.468	3.18	.01

X_p --Mean of principal responses

X_t --Mean for teachers

D --Difference of means

s_p^2 --Principal variance

s_t^2 --Teacher variance

F --Ratio of variances

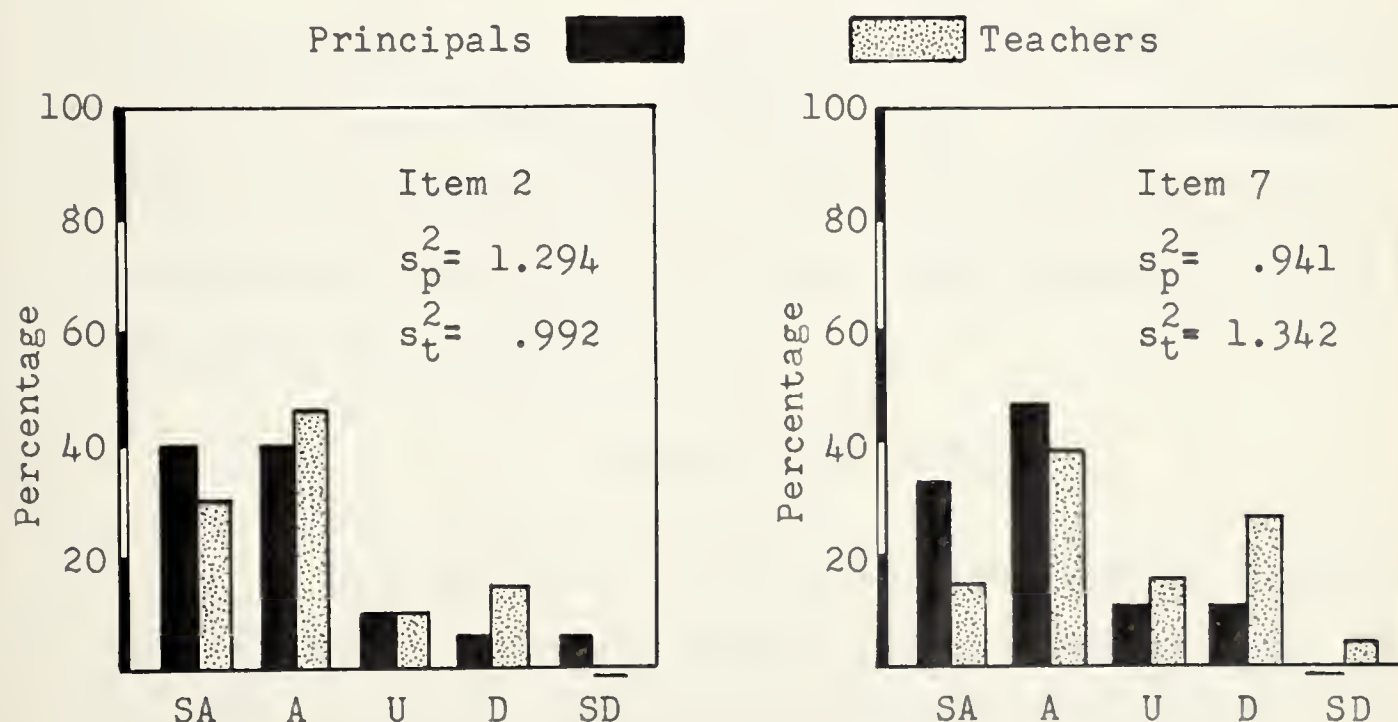


FIGURE 9

PERCENTAGE HISTOGRAMS FOR DISTRIBUTIONS OF PRINCIPAL AND
TEACHER RESPONSES ON TWO EXPECTATION ITEMS

them, but no difference between the means or variances on this item. In both cases, principals and teachers tended to strongly agree and agree with the suggested policy.

The differences between principal and teacher means for items 3 and 5 were significant at the .05 and .01 level respectively. A comparison of responses indicates that there was a greater tendency for principals to strongly agree that the principal should take the lead in providing opportunities for gifted and slow learners, and that he should hold sessions with pupils and parents to discuss educational and vocational plans.

There was also a greater tendency for principals than for teachers, to strongly agree with item 1, that the principal should encourage pupils to accept definite responsibilities in the operation of the school. The differences between the variance scores on this item and item 5 were in the predicted direction. There was less variability among principals than among teachers.

II. WORKING WITH CITIZENS

In this segment, only one item displayed no significant difference between both mean and variance scores. On two items there were significant differences between corresponding means, both at the .01 level of confidence. The remaining two items exhibited significant differences

between both means and variances. A summary of these findings is contained in Table XIII.

TABLE XIII

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE MEAN SCORES AND VARIANCE SCORES OF PRINCIPALS AND TEACHERS FOR INDIVIDUAL ITEMS ON THE QUESTIONNAIRE SEGMENT "WORKING WITH CITIZENS"

PART A Item	\bar{X}_p	\bar{X}_t	D	Sig.	s_p^2	s_t^2	F	Sig.
6	4.50	4.04	.46	.01	.382	.748	1.96	Not
7	4.00	3.31	.69	.01	.941	1.342	1.43	Not
8	4.56	4.31	.25	Not	.379	.491	1.30	Not
9	4.67	4.34	.33	.05	.235	.499	2.12	.05
10	4.83	4.31	.52	.01	.147	.604	4.11	.01

There was a high degree of consensus within both samples and between the two on the expectation that the principal should accept invitations to speak to lay organizations within the community, item 8. Although there was no significant difference between the spread of the corresponding distributions for item 6, there was a greater tendency for principals to strongly agree that the principal should take the initiative in involving citizens in a continuing study of the school and its problems.

The corresponding distributions for item 7, illustrated in a histogram in Figure 9, showed no significant

difference, although there was a high degree of variability in each. Principals tended to strongly agree and agree more so than did teachers, that the principal should exercise leadership in some church functions. This was indicated by the difference between the means.

A significant difference was found between the means and variances of each of items 9 and 10. The differences in means resulted primarily from a difference in the intensity of agreement. Whereas principals tended to strongly agree that the principal should encourage teachers and pupils to support worthwhile community projects, and that he should invite parents and other lay citizens to attend assemblies and other school programs, there was a greater tendency for teacher responses to be evenly divided between strongly agree and agree.

On both items 9 and 10 the variability of the responses of principals was smaller than that of teachers. This lends support to the hypothesis that such a situation would exist.

III. WORKING WITH TEACHERS

On thirteen of the twenty items in this questionnaire segment there were no significant differences between either means or variances. One of the remaining items possessed a difference of means, but no difference of variances.

Another item displayed a significant difference between the variabilities but no difference between means. On five items there were significant differences between means and variances.

Included in the items on which there was agreement between samples were items with relatively high and relatively low consensus within each sample. The corresponding variances for items 17 and 22, as presented in Table XIV, indicated a high degree of consensus within and between the two samples that the principal should defend the school and its personnel against unwarranted criticism, and give every encouragement to teachers to improve their educational qualifications. However, the variance scores for items 13 and 14 indicate that although there were no significant differences between means or variances, there was a relatively low degree of consensus within each sample on whether or not the principal should give his non-teaching time primarily to classroom supervision, as illustrated in Figure 10, and whether he should serve only as the last resort in dealing with serious behavioral problems.

The item on which there was a difference in the "substance" of responses, but not in the variability, was item 25. A larger proportion of the principals than of the teachers strongly agreed that the principal should hold joint staff meetings with personnel of the feeder schools to

TABLE XIV

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE MEAN SCORES AND VARIANCE SCORES OF
PRINCIPALS AND TEACHERS FOR INDIVIDUAL ITEMS ON THE
QUESTIONNAIRE SEGMENT "WORKING WITH TEACHERS"

PART A								
Item	\bar{X}_p	\bar{X}_t	D	Sig.	s_p^2	s_t^2	F	Sig.
11	4.83	4.34	.49	.01	.147	.577	3.92	.01
12	4.22	4.23	.01	Not	.654	.614	1.06	Not
13	3.56	3.60	.04	Not	1.085	1.357	1.25	Not
14	3.12	3.81	.69	Not	1.985	1.406	1.41	Not
15	4.89	4.50	.39	.01	.104	.503	4.84	.01
16	4.50	4.46	.04	Not	.265	.478	1.80	Not
17	4.72	4.74	.02	Not	.330	.239	1.38	Not
18	4.06	3.88	.18	Not	.592	.723	1.22	Not
19	3.89	3.74	.15	Not	.575	1.080	1.88	Not
20	3.94	3.92	.02	Not	.761	.718	1.06	Not
21	4.56	4.20	.36	.05	.379	.877	2.31	.05
22	4.94	4.58	.36	.01	.056	.314	5.61	.01
23	3.67	3.29	.38	Not	.824	.820	1.00	Not
24	3.72	3.58	.14	Not	.683	.683	1.00	Not
25	4.78	4.46	.32	.01	.183	.342	1.87	Not
26	4.50	4.21	.29	Not	.265	.624	2.35	.05
27	3.22	2.82	.40	Not	1.359	1.576	1.16	Not
28	4.50	4.15	.35	.05	.265	.762	2.88	.01
29	4.39	4.10	.29	Not	.369	.615	1.67	Not
30	3.94	3.69	.25	Not	1.232	1.147	1.07	Not

assist the co-ordination of efforts.

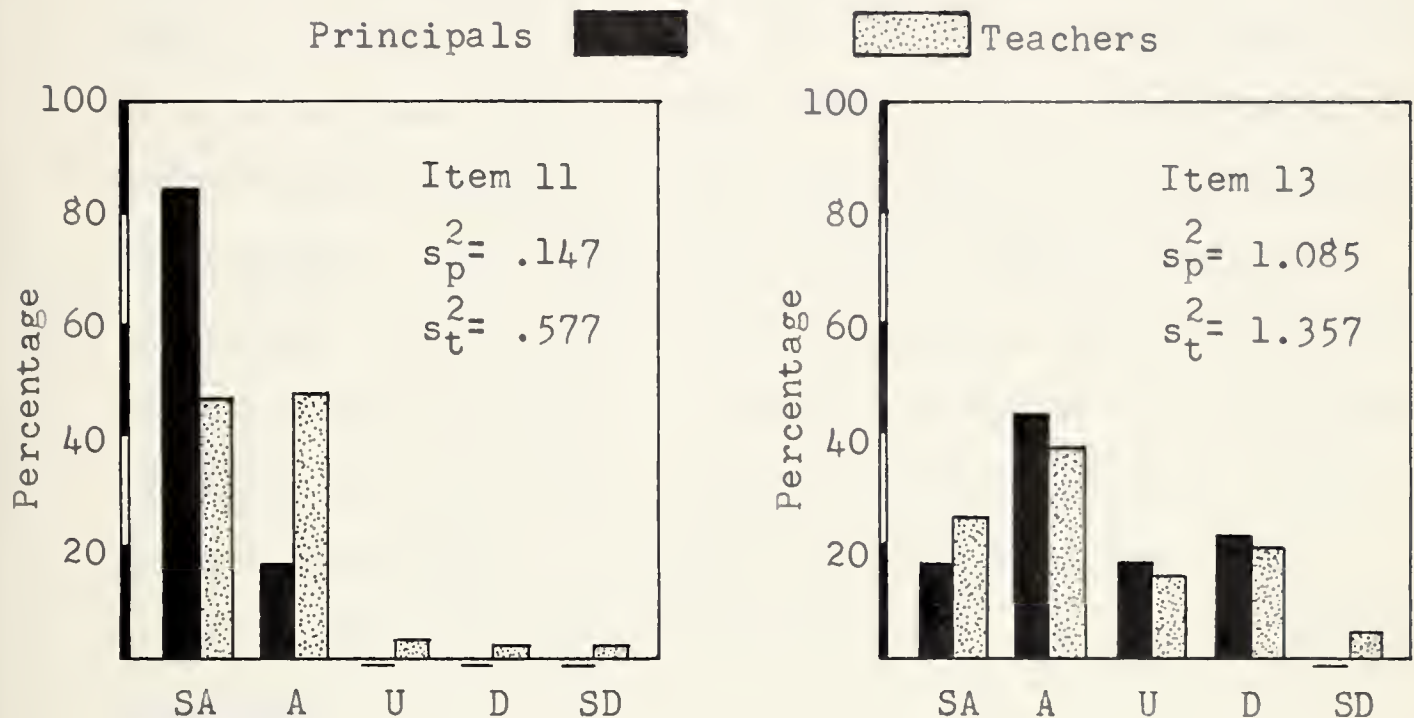


FIGURE 10

PERCENTAGE HISTOGRAMS FOR DISTRIBUTIONS OF PRINCIPAL AND TEACHER RESPONSES ON TWO EXPECTATION ITEMS

A significant difference was found to exist between the "spread" of principal and teacher responses for item 26. There was more variability on teacher than on principal responses to this statement, which suggested that the principal should help teachers keep up with the modern thinking in teaching content and method. Although large portions of the samples either strongly agreed or agreed with this suggested policy, teachers did not feel as strongly as did principals that the principal should accept this

responsibility.

Significant differences between the means and the variances existed for items 11, 15, 21, 22, and 28. As shown in Figure 10, teachers did not feel as strongly as did principals that the principal should evaluate the quality of teaching and learning in the classroom, so that he could aid improvement. This conflict, although primarily one of a difference in the intensity of agreement, coupled with the intraposition conflict expressed by principals and teachers on whether or not the principal should spend most of his non-teaching time on classroom supervision, displayed disagreement concerning the principal's supervisory responsibilities.

Teacher responses were slightly more reserved than principal responses on whether or not the principal should be consulted in decisions concerning the appointment of teachers to his staff. Such was also the case when principals and teachers were asked whether the principal should retain the responsibility for making the final decisions on important school policy, item 21. The conflict expressed on another item, item 22, was essentially the result of very high agreement among principals; 94 per cent strongly agreeing that the principal should make every effort to encourage teachers to further their training. Principals felt more strongly than did teachers that the principal

should urge that teachers attend home and school meetings.

All of the six sets of variance scores in this segment which were significantly different, lent support to the hypothesis that there would be less variability on the responses of principals than on those of teachers.

IV. CONSIDERATION ITEMS

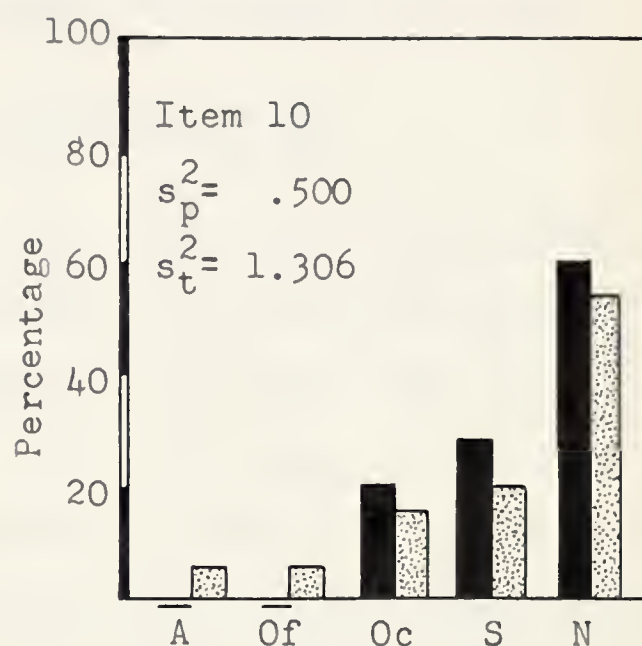
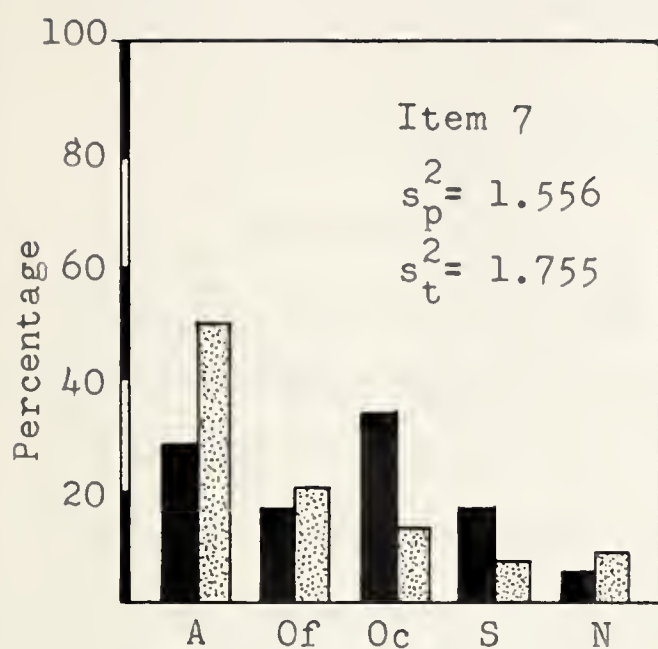
Near perfect consensus between principals and teachers was obtained for the items of this segment. As shown in Table XV, only one set of variance scores were significantly different, and that at the .05 level. Although three sets of variance scores showed high intraposition conflict, the distributions were not significantly different. As pointed out in Chapter V, the variability of the responses among principals and teachers was greatest when they were asked to select the frequency with which the principal should treat staff members as his equals, item 7; look out for the personal welfare of individual staff members, item 11; and be slow to accept new ideas, item 18. Histograms in Figure 11, page 108, indicate the separate distributions for teachers and principals, on items 7 and 11.

As was also indicated in Chapter V, principals and teachers generally agreed that the principal should always be understanding, helpful, and seek staff approval on important matters. Generally, they felt he should

TABLE XV

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE MEAN SCORES AND VARIANCE SCORES
OF PRINCIPALS AND TEACHERS FOR INDIVIDUAL ITEMS ON
THE QUESTIONNAIRE SEGMENT "CONSIDERATION"

PART B Item	X_p	X_t	D	Sig.	s_p^2	s_t^2	F	Sig.
1	4.44	4.57	.13	Not	.379	.429	1.13	Not
2	3.00	2.71	.29	Not	.588	.788	1.34	Not
5	4.22	4.00	.22	Not	.536	.954	1.78	Not
7	3.44	3.96	.52	Not	1.556	1.755	1.13	Not
8	4.72	4.82	.10	Not	.212	.263	1.24	Not
9	1.89	1.79	.10	Not	.693	.794	1.14	Not
11	3.39	3.19	.20	Not	1.310	1.893	1.44	Not
14	1.56	1.45	.11	Not	.497	.435	1.14	Not
15	2.00	2.03	.03	Not	.824	.533	1.54	Not
18	2.06	2.54	.48	Not	1.350	1.507	1.12	Not
20	4.06	3.91	.15	Not	.644	.787	1.22	Not
22	4.94	4.91	.03	Not	.056	.128	2.28	.05
25	5.00	4.92	.08	Not	.000	.119	----	Not
27	3.78	3.56	.22	Not	.306	.318	1.04	Not
28	4.28	4.31	.03	Not	.683	.635	1.08	Not



Principals

Teachers

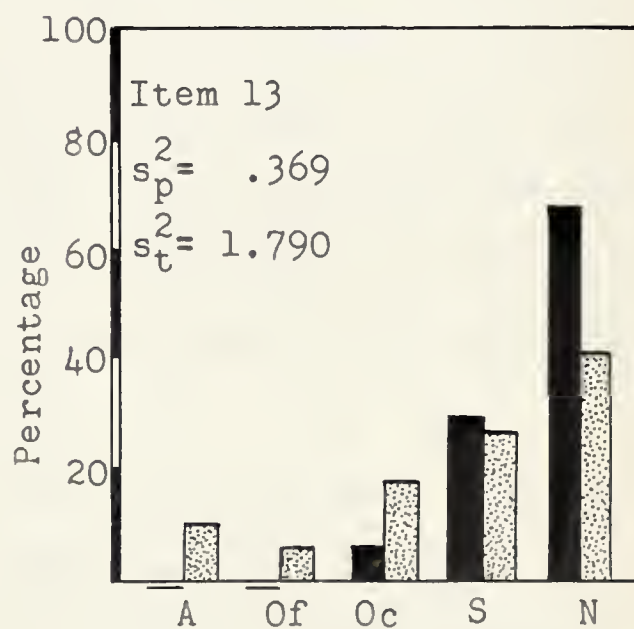
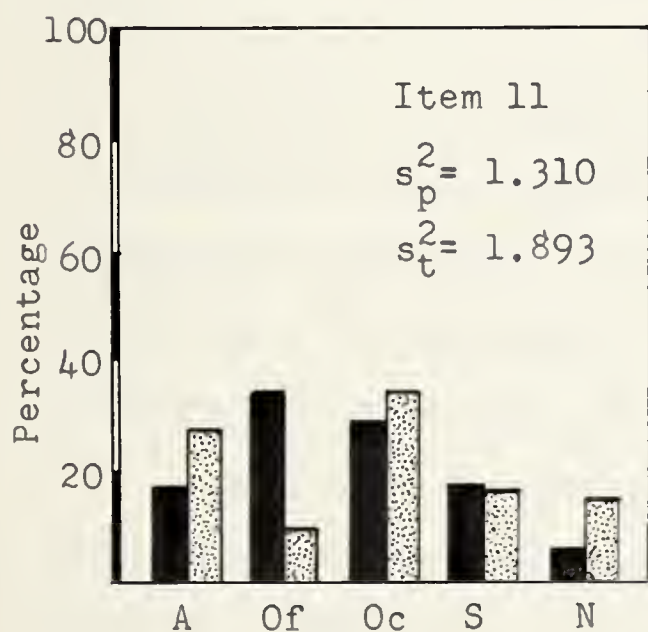


FIGURE 11

PERCENTAGE HISTOGRAMS FOR DISTRIBUTIONS OF PRINCIPAL AND
TEACHER RESPONSES ON FOUR EXPECTATION ITEMS

occasionally, seldom, or never keep to himself, refuse to explain his actions, or act without consulting the staff.

V. INITIATING STRUCTURE ITEMS

Table XVI illustrates that eight of the behavioral descriptions in this segment showed no differences between corresponding means or variances. On one item there was a significant difference between only the means, and on four others a significant difference between only the variances. On two items there were significant differences between both the means and variances.

Of the items on which there was agreement between principals and teachers, items 4 and 17 displayed a relatively high degree of consensus within each sample. There was a tendency for each sample to respond in the always and often categories when asked the frequency with which the principal should make his attitudes clear to the staff, and let staff members know what was expected of them.

Only item 3 contained a difference of means, but no difference between variances. There appeared to be a greater tendency for principals to respond in the always and often categories, whereas the largest proportion of teachers checked occasionally, when describing how often the principal should assign teachers to particular tasks.

Differences in the variability of principal and

TABLE XVI

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE MEAN SCORES AND VARIANCE SCORES
OF PRINCIPALS AND TEACHERS FOR INDIVIDUAL ITEMS ON
THE QUESTIONNAIRE SEGMENT "INITIATING STRUCTURE"

PART B Item	\bar{X}_p	\bar{X}_t	D	Sig.	s_p^2	s_t^2	F	Sig.
3	4.17	3.70	.47	.05	.618	.877	1.42	Not
4	4.67	4.71	.04	Not	.353	.391	1.11	Not
6	3.89	3.91	.02	Not	.810	.829	1.02	Not
10	1.50	1.85	.35	Not	.500	1.306	2.61	.05
12	3.50	3.76	.26	Not	.853	.978	1.15	Not
13	1.39	2.24	.85	.01	.369	1.790	4.85	.01
16	1.00	1.30	.30	.01	.000	.775	----	.01
17	4.50	4.58	.08	Not	.500	.814	1.63	Not
19	4.44	4.61	.17	Not	1.085	.427	2.54	.01
21	4.11	4.28	.17	Not	.575	.659	1.15	Not
23	4.00	4.35	.35	Not	.706	.724	1.02	Not
24	4.78	4.66	.12	Not	.301	.726	2.41	.05
26	4.11	4.25	.14	Not	1.046	1.086	1.04	Not
29	4.22	4.26	.04	Not	.654	.853	1.30	Not
30	4.83	4.67	.16	Not	.147	.313	2.16	.05

teacher responses were apparent in items 10, 19, 24, and 30. The difference in the distributions for item 10, that the principal should rule with an iron hand, resulted from teacher responses ranging from always to never, whereas principal responses were concentrated primarily at the response categories seldom and never. The histogram in Figure 11, page 108, illustrates the distributions for this item.

Item 19, stating that the principal should maintain definite standards of performance was one item on which the variability of principal responses was greater than that of teachers. The variances for responses to items 24 and 30 supported the hypothesis that the variability for principal responses was less than that for teachers. However, both samples had a tendency to state that the principal should always or often make sure that his part in the school system was understood by all, and see to it that the work of staff members was co-ordinated.

The two items with significant differences between corresponding means and variances were items 13 and 16. Whereas 67 per cent of the principals chose never, and 28 per cent seldom, in response to item 13 which stated that the principal should speak in a manner not to be questioned, teacher responses ranged from always to never. A percentage histogram of the distribution for this item is included in

Figure 11.

In five of the six sets of variance scores in this segment which showed a significant difference, principal scores were less than teacher scores.

VI. THE LEADERSHIP DIMENSIONS OF CONSIDERATION AND INITIATING STRUCTURE

The final two hypotheses to be tested in this chapter deal with the leadership dimensions of Consideration and Initiating Structure as defined in studies using the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire.

Consideration refers to behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth, in the relationship between the leader and members of his staff. Initiating Structure refers to the leader's behavior in delineating the relationship between himself and members of the work-group, and in endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and methods of procedure.¹

As noted in the chapter on related studies, Evenson found among other things that:

1. There was a lower level of expectations for the Consideration dimension among teachers than among principals, and
2. That both teachers and principals were in agreement

¹Andrew W. Halpin, The Leadership Behavior of School Superintendents (Columbus, Ohio: College of Education, Ohio State University, 1956), p. 4.

on their expectations regarding the dimension
Initiating Structure.²

These two findings will be considered hypotheses to be tested in the present study.

Table XVII presents the necessary data for testing these hypotheses. It contains the mean scores and standard deviations of the two leadership dimensions for each sample.

TABLE XVII

MEAN SCORES AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR PRINCIPALS AND
TEACHERS ON CONSIDERATION AND INITIATING STRUCTURE

Dimension	X_p N=18	s_p	X_t N=89	s_t	Level of Sig. of Difference of Means
Consideration	47.22	3.87	46.19	5.54	Not
Initiating Structure	44.11	4.25	45.09	5.93	Not

The t test was used to determine whether the mean score on the Consideration dimension for teachers was significantly smaller than that for principals. It was found that even though the numerical difference was in the predicted direction, it was not significant at the .05 level

²Warren L. Evenson, "The Leadership Behavior of High School Principals," (Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1958). (Microfilm).

of confidence. The results of this study did not lend support to the finding of Evenson.

A t test of the means on the Initiating Structure dimension confirmed that the difference between these means could also be attributed to chance. This finding, however, was similar to that of Evenson.

From the results of these final two hypotheses, it might be concluded that there was fundamental agreement between what principals and teachers perceived as being ideal behavior for the regional and central high school principal in being considerate and understanding of his staff while promoting the achievement of the goals of the school system.

VII. SUMMARY

This chapter has attempted to determine areas of agreement and disagreement between principals and teachers in defining the leadership role of the high school principal.

The basic general hypothesis tested in this chapter was that there would be differing degrees of consensus between principals and teachers on the expectation items used in this study. To determine the items on which response distributions for principals differed significantly from those of teachers, a t test of the means and an F test of the variances were used. The results were analyzed for each of the five questionnaire segments. The present summary

will first present a number of what might be classified as "more significant" items on which there was no significant difference between the responses of principals and teachers.

Of the sixty items used on the instrument, there was comparative agreement between principals and teachers on thirty-eight. As pointed out throughout the chapter, however, this number includes items which possessed little consensus within either sample group, but on which there was no significant difference between the distributions to reveal this lack of intraposition consensus.

A list of the items on which there was strong agreement within and between principals and teachers would include items 4, 8, 12, 16, and 17, from Part A of the questionnaire, and items 4, 8, 15, 17, and 25 from Part B. The implications from these items are that principals and teachers saw the successful principal as: involving students in the formation of school policy; promoting good public relations through speeches to lay organizations on educational topics; supporting a teacher's action when face to face with pupils and/or parents; assigning extra curricular activities equally with due consideration to such things as interest, health, and teaching load; and defending the school and its personnel against unwarranted criticism. The successful principal was seen by both samples as one who always made his attitudes clear to the staff; was always

easy to understand; seldom acted without consulting the staff; often or always let staff members know what was expected of them; and always made his staff members feel at ease when talking with them.

The items on which there were significant differences between corresponding mean and variance scores of the responses of principals and teachers included numbers 1, 5, 9, 10, 11, 15, 21, 22, and 28, in Part A of the questionnaire, and items 13 and 16, in Part B.

Included in these items were statements that the principal should encourage pupils to accept definite responsibilities in the operation of the school; encourage teachers and pupils to support worthwhile community projects; evaluate the quality of teaching and learning in the classroom; be consulted concerning the appointment of teachers to his staff; and speak in a manner not to be questioned.

The second hypothesis tested in this chapter predicted that on the items on which there was a difference between the variabilities of principal and teacher responses, the variability among principals would be less than that among teachers. This prediction was based on the assumptions that the position incumbents had had more opportunity than teachers to clarify their thinking concerning their leadership role, and that in many cases their professional training had been relatively homogeneous.

Of the seventeen items on which there was a significant difference between variance scores, sixteen showed less variability among principals than among teachers.

Two final hypotheses were concerned with the leadership dimensions of Consideration and Initiating Structure. It was hypothesized that: (a) the expectations of teachers on the Consideration dimension would be lower than those of principals, and (b) that there would be no difference between the expectations of teachers and principals on the items describing the Initiating Structure dimension. No support was found for the first hypothesis, but the prediction for the second was upheld.

CHAPTER VII

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

A concept prevailing in much of the literature on role theory is that human behavior is influenced to some degree by the expectations the individual holds for himself and those which others hold for him. A related concept is that a person's position in the social organization in which he operates influences his relationships and his resulting behaviors. Together, these concepts suggest that the leader's role is in part a function of the position or positions he occupies in the organization, and in part a function of expectations.

This study was focused on the position occupied by the Newfoundland regional and central high school principal. The primary purpose was to ascertain the relationship between the principal's own expectations and the expectations of teachers concerning his role as an educational leader. This included an analysis of consensus within each sample and consensus between the two samples.

I. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study is limited to describing the expectations of the regional and central high school principal on sixty selected questionnaire items. Nothing can be postulated

concerning expectations on items other than those used. Inferences to other types of school administrators cannot be drawn with confidence.

It should also be noted that the two groups from whom expectations were solicited are only two of a number of groups which help to define the principal's role. However, it is felt that the principal's own beliefs of what he should do, often formulated in the light of his values and what he feels others expect of him, are basic in determining his actual behavior. It is also felt that his teaching staff has more direct influence on the determination of school policy, especially in the province under study, than the school supervisor, the local community, or the school board.

Another limitation is the fact that the study is based on expectations reported through use of a questionnaire. It must be assumed that these responses are valid. Also, even though the sample is comprised of a large proportion of the total population, the findings are based on results from a relatively small number of cases.

It could not be determined in this study the extent to which the conflict uncovered was conflict within individual schools or conflict between the respondents of different schools.

II. CONCLUSIONS

Summaries of the survey aspects of the data have been included at the close of Chapters V and VI. This section will be confined to the consolidation of some of the more important observations and general conclusions. References to exact data will be made to support some of these conclusions.

1. It was concluded that there was a high degree of agreement among principals and teachers on a number of expectation items describing behavior often considered basic to the successful occupancy of the principalship.

As a leader who works with pupils, there was a high degree of consensus within each sample and between the samples that the principal should involve pupils in the planning of school policy which related directly to them. As a member of the community he was expected to accept invitations to speak to lay organizations on educational topics. As a leader of his staff he was expected to defend the school against unwarranted criticism; to assign extra curricular activities equally with due consideration for such things as health, teaching load, and interest; to invite the district supervisor to visit the school regularly to discuss problems with the staff; to provide opportunities for teachers to visit other classrooms; and to enlist the help of teachers in planning the agenda for staff meetings.

He was expected frequently to make his attitudes clear to the staff; emphasize the meeting of deadlines; encourage the use of uniform procedures; and act in a manner so as to evoke the co-operation of all connected with the system.

2. In spite of these areas of agreement, it must be concluded that there were also serious areas of conflict within each sample and between the two in describing the leadership role of the principal.

Table XVIII contains a number of items classified as displaying a low degree of consensus within each sample. Included were items stating that the principal should be responsible for providing for adequate and continuous supervision of noon hour, recess, and play-period activities; that he should provide active leadership in some church activities; that he should spend his non-teaching time primarily on classroom supervision; and that he should assist the supervisor in rating teachers.

There was also a low degree of consensus within each sample on the frequency with which the principal should treat staff members as his equals; look out for the personal welfare of individual staff members; accept new ideas slowly; maintain definite standards of performance; and ask staff members to follow standard rules and regulations.

Table XIX, page 123, presents a summary of the items on which there were differences between corresponding means

and/or variances. Included in the items which solicited a significant difference between principal and teacher means and variances were items stating that the principal should encourage teachers and pupils to support worthwhile community projects; evaluate the quality of teaching and learning in the classroom; and be consulted in decisions concerning the appointment of teachers to his staff. There was also interposition conflict on the frequency with which the principal should speak in a manner not to be questioned.

TABLE XVIII

A SELECTION OF ITEMS WITH A LOW DEGREE OF CONSENSUS WITHIN EACH SAMPLE, BUT NO SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE MEANS OR VARIANCES OF PRINCIPAL AND TEACHER DISTRIBUTIONS

	Item Number	Principal Variance Score	Teacher Variance Score
Part A:	2	1.294	.992
	13	1.085	1.357
	14	1.985	1.406
	27	1.359	1.576
	30	1.232	1.147
Part B:	7	1.556	1.755
	11	1.310	1.893
	18	1.350	1.507
	26	1.046	1.086

TABLE XIX

THE ITEMS WITH DIFFERENCES OF MEANS AND/OR VARIANCES

Item Number	Level of Sig. of the Difference of Means	Level of Sig. of the Difference of Variances
Part A: 1	.01	.01
3	.05	--
5	.01	.01
6	.01	--
7	.01	--
9	.05	.05
10	.01	.01
11	.01	.01
15	.01	.01
21	.05	.05
22	.01	.01
25	.01	--
26	--	.05
28	.05	.05
Part B: 3	.05	--
10	--	.05
13	.01	.01
16	.01	.01
19	--	.01
22	--	.05
24	--	.05
30	--	.05

3. There was a high degree of agreement on expectations describing the principal's human relations role.

This conclusion was supported by the fact that there was no significant difference between the responses of principals and teachers on fourteen of the fifteen expectation items describing the leadership dimension of Consideration. The only items on which there was a high degree of intraposition conflict were items stating that the principal should attempt to satisfy the personal needs of staff members or treat them with a great deal of personal attention.

There was a high degree of consensus that the principal should frequently find time to listen to staff members, be easy to understand, be friendly and approachable, make his staff members feel at ease when talking with them, and get staff approval on important matters before going ahead.

4. There was more consensus among teachers on items describing the functions which the principal should do, than on those suggesting how he might behave in performing his duties.

This finding was suggested from an analysis which divided the items of each of Parts A and B of the questionnaire into "high" and "low" consensus categories. Variance scores were used to facilitate this analysis. It was found that for teachers, twenty of the items of Part A possessed variance scores indicating a high degree of consensus as

compared with the mean variance, whereas only fourteen of the thirty in Part B were classified into the high consensus category. This difference was significant at the .05 level of confidence.

Such was not the case with the principal sample, however, where eighteen variances were classified as displaying "high" consensus in Part A, with twelve classified as "low", compared with sixteen "high" and fourteen "low" on Part B of the questionnaire.

5. There was no significant difference between principal and teacher expectations on each of the leadership dimensions of Consideration and Initiating Structure.

In the present study, the findings of Evenson were accepted as hypotheses to be tested. These were that teachers would have lower expectations on the Consideration dimension than principals did, whereas there would be no significant difference between responses of the two samples on the Initiating Structure dimension. The present study found no significant difference between mean scores on either dimension, hence lending support to the second hypothesis only.

6. There was no significant relationship between expectations and: (a) the level of the respondent's professional training, (b) the size of the school system within which the respondent operated, and (c) the

respondent's total years of teaching experience.

This hypothesis was tested by dichotomizing the teacher sample first into teachers with degrees and teachers without degrees; secondly, into teachers from schools with ten or more classrooms and less than ten classrooms; and thirdly, into teachers with ten or more years of teaching experience, and teachers with less than ten years. It was hypothesized that a significant difference would exist between the responses of teachers classified according to each of training, size of school system, and experience.

These predictions were based on the assumptions that teachers with degrees had often experienced relatively homogeneous training and had done more thinking concerning the principal's role; that teachers in larger schools had more necessity and opportunity to seek a division of labor and discuss the functions of each person within the system; and that the more experienced teacher had clarified his thinking through training and experience concerning what was expected of the principal.

No support, however, was found for this hypothesis when the items were grouped according to the questionnaire segments. Such might not be the case, however, if items were tested individually for each variable.

Possible explanations for a portion of these findings might include the fact that because of the large number of

relatively small schools included in the sample, there is close interaction between teachers with and without degrees, and experienced and inexperienced teachers.

7. There appeared to be a feeling among a considerable number of respondents that the successful principal was one who could weave authority and participation together effectively.

Although there were definite indications that both samples expected the principal to operate in a manner which respected teachers as individuals, and permitted or invited them to participate in the formation of school policy, there were also indications that there were respondents who were not ready to accept the role of "democratic" leadership with all its implications. There was a relatively high degree of conflict within each sample as to whether the principal should delegate authority commensurate with responsibility. Although large proportions of each sample stated that the principal should seldom or never keep to himself, rule with an iron hand, or speak in a manner not to be questioned, there were principals who checked "occasionally" in reply to these statements and teachers whose responses included always or often. A high degree of intraposition conflict occurred when samples were asked the frequency with which the principal should treat staff members as his equals. Both sets of responses ranged from always to never.

8. It might be concluded that principals and teachers would invest their time wisely if they made a concerted effort to discuss frankly their expectations concerning the principal's leadership behavior. The apparent necessity for understanding concerning, for example, the principal's supervisory role supports this conclusion. The extent to which they are successful in furthering the attainment of the goals of the school will depend, in part, upon the extent to which such understanding develops between them.

III. IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

In this study it was hoped that some small contribution would be made to the complex and extremely significant task of identifying some of the behaviors expected of the secondary school principal.

It appears that increasing emphasis is being placed on the selection and preparation of school administrators. However, the whole process of selection and training is in part dependent upon an understanding of what is required on the job. Although expectations do not fully define the administrator's role, the results of a wide variety of expectations from a large representation of the groups associated with the school system will present implications for what might be expected of the "average" administrator.

A well planned in-service training program should

assist the principal in ascertaining the attitudes and expectations of his staff towards his ideal leadership role. This finding will be of little practical value, however, unless he ascertains the extent to which these expectations coincide or conflict within the teacher group, and the correspondence between these attitudes and his own. His next step might be an attempt to modify his own attitudes and/or those of others on his staff, with a view to narrowing the gap between what is felt "should be" and what "is". A prime aim will be to lower the degree of conflict on what is considered ideal behavior, and develop more understanding between all those associated with the school system.

It is felt that frank discussions concerning the role of the high school principal would automatically involve a discussion of the roles of others within the system, and result in better relationships, and the development of more intelligent administrative or leadership behavior. All too often principals and teachers have defined the principal's role in various ways because of varying theories about what the principal should do. Discussions concerning the role of the principal could result in the establishment of a theoretical framework against which the actual behavior of the principal could be evaluated.

More understanding could also be promoted between principals and teachers through active professional

organizations. In many areas of Newfoundland, the activities of such organizations have been seriously curtailed by adverse weather conditions and the lack of adequate transportation facilities. However, with the improvement of roads, and the presence of added leadership from principals and teachers of regional and central high schools, there are possibilities for further developments of the services rendered by these organizations.

There are areas in the province which might well benefit from the establishment of a local principals' organization to include all principals in the area, or the establishment of a secondary school organization such as the Alberta Five School Project. Because of the benefits which would accrue from more interaction of school personnel from different communities of the province, more emphasis should be placed on regional co-operation.

Finally, an implication of the findings of this study concerning pre-service training is the apparent necessity that the principal obtain a thorough grounding in the human relations aspects of running a school. The need for such training was indicated by the high degree of consensus on many of the items describing the leadership dimension of Consideration.

IV. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

This study has collected certain principal and teacher expectations for the principal's leadership role. The following areas, stated as questions, were revealed as providing possibilities for further research:

1. What are the expectations of pupils, parents, supervisors, and school board members for the principal's leadership role?
2. What is the relationship between what the principal and his alter groups see as ideal behavior, and their perceptions of how the principal actually behaves?
3. Is there any relationship between the level of agreement on what is considered ideal behavior, and the amount of satisfaction received from working in the system?
4. What are the effects of the type of community and the occupational groups served on the expected role of the principal?
5. To what extent does the length of experience in one system result in more consensus on expectations for the principal's role?
6. What are some of the more serious consequences of a high degree of conflict concerning the principal's leadership role?

To conclude, it might be stated that there would appear to be numerous possibilities for studies which attempt to describe the job of the administrator in behavioral terms.

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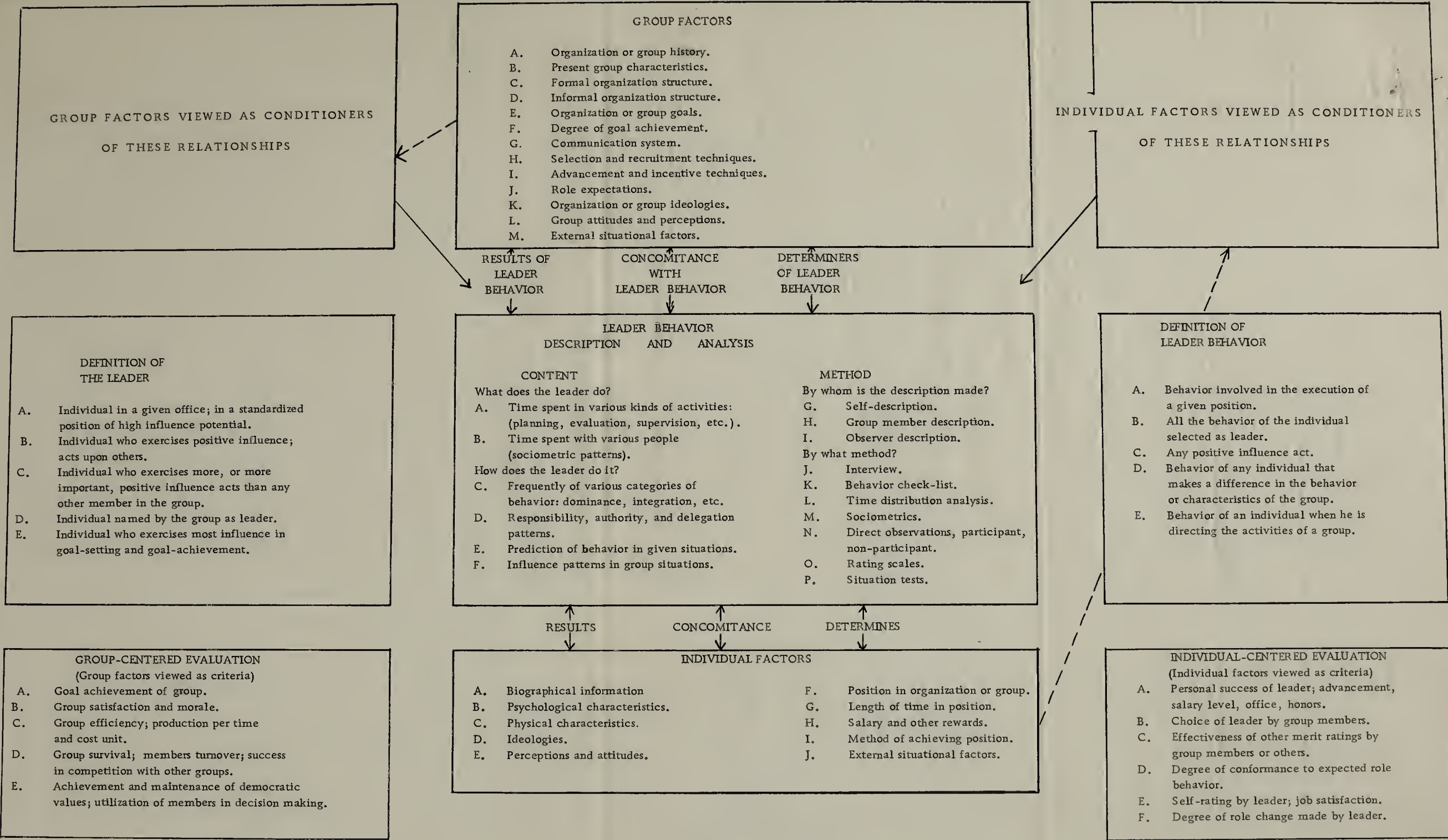
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APPENDIX A

A Paradigm for the Study of Leadership



A PARADIGM FOR THE STUDY OF LEADERSHIP

APPENDIX B

Questionnaire to Principals and Teachers

LEADERSHIP EXPECTATIONS OF THE PRINCIPAL
IN NEWFOUNDLAND'S REGIONAL AND CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOLS
AS PERCEIVED BY PRINCIPALS AND STAFFS

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PART A

The following are statements suggesting a principal's action in thirty key situations. Please indicate whether you Strongly Agree, Agree, are Undecided, Disagree, or Strongly Disagree with each statement by circling the number to the right of each which corresponds with your decision, using the following key:

1 --- Strongly Agree

3 --- Undecided

5 --- Strongly Disagree

2 --- Agree

4 --- Disagree

Please interpret he as she when referring to a lady principal.

WORKING WITH PUPILS

1. The principal should encourage pupils to accept definite responsibilities in the operation of the school 1 2 3 4 5
2. He should be held responsible for providing for adequate and continuous supervision of student activities during noon hours, recess and play periods . . . 1 2 3 4 5
3. He should take the lead in providing opportunities for gifted and slow learners 1 2 3 4 5
4. He should involve pupils in the planning of school policy which relates directly to them 1 2 3 4 5
5. He should hold conferences with pupils and parents to help them reach conclusions regarding educational and vocational plans 1 2 3 4 5

WORKING WITH CITIZENS

6. He should take the initiative in involving citizens in a continuing study of the school and its problems 1 2 3 4 5
7. He should provide leadership in some church activities 1 2 3 4 5
8. He should accept invitations to speak to lay organizations on educational topics 1 2 3 4 5
9. He should encourage teachers and pupils to support worthwhile community projects 1 2 3 4 5
10. He should invite parents and other lay citizens to attend assemblies and other school programs 1 2 3 4 5

WORKING WITH TEACHERS

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
11. He should evaluate the quality of teaching and learning in the classroom, so that he can aid improvement	1	2	3	4	5
12. He should support a teacher's action when face to face with pupils and/or parents	1	2	3	4	5
13. He should give his non-teaching time primarily to classroom supervision	1	2	3	4	5
14. He should encourage teachers to refer serious behavioral problems to him only as a last resort	1	2	3	4	5
15. He should be consulted in decisions concerning the appointment of teachers to the staff	1	2	3	4	5
16. He should assign extra-curricular activities equally among his staff, with due consideration to such things as teaching load, interest and health	1	2	3	4	5
17. He should defend the school and its personnel against unwarranted criticism	1	2	3	4	5
18. He should invite the supervisor to visit the school regularly to discuss problems with the staff	1	2	3	4	5
19. He should delegate some definite non-teaching responsibilities to the staff, with full authority to act as they see fit	1	2	3	4	5
20. He should encourage criticism of school policy by the staff	1	2	3	4	5
21. He should retain the responsibility for making the final decision on important school policy	1	2	3	4	5
22. He should give every encouragement to teachers to improve their educational qualifications	1	2	3	4	5
23. He should encourage, and provide opportunity for, teachers to visit the homes of their pupils	1	2	3	4	5
24. He should provide opportunities for teachers to visit other classrooms	1	2	3	4	5
25. He should hold joint meetings in which staff members of the feeder schools can discuss with the high school staff the objectives and work of the schools within the system	1	2	3	4	5
26. He should help teachers keep up with the modern thinking in teaching content and methods	1	2	3	4	5
27. He should establish as one of the prime aims of the school the obtaining of higher results in the provincial examinations	1	2	3	4	5
28. He should urge that teachers attend Home and School meetings, where such an organization exists	1	2	3	4	5
29. He should enlist the help of teachers in planning the agenda of staff meetings	1	2	3	4	5
30. The principal should assist the supervisor in rating teachers	1	2	3	4	5

PART B

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How often should the principal act in the manner described in the following thirty items? Find the letter to the right of each which corresponds with your decision as to how often you believe he should behave in the described manner, and circle the letter. Please use the following key:

A --- Always
B --- Often

C --- Occasionally
D --- Seldom

E --- Never

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. The principal should find time to listen to staff members | A | B | C | D | E |
| 2. He should do personal favors for staff members | A | B | C | D | E |
| 3. He should assign staff members to particular tasks | A | B | C | D | E |
| 4. He should make his attitudes clear to the staff | A | B | C | D | E |
| 5. He should do little things to make it pleasant to be a member
of the staff | A | B | C | D | E |
| 6. He should try out his new ideas with the staff | A | B | C | D | E |
| 7. He should treat all staff members as his equals | A | B | C | D | E |
| 8. He should be easy to understand | A | B | C | D | E |
| 9. He should keep to himself | A | B | C | D | E |
| 10. He should rule with an iron hand | A | B | C | D | E |
| 11. He should look out for the personal welfare of individual staff
members | A | B | C | D | E |
| 12. He should criticize poor work | A | B | C | D | E |
| 13. He should speak in a manner not to be questioned | A | B | C | D | E |
| 14. He should refuse to explain his actions | A | B | C | D | E |
| 15. He should act without consulting the staff | A | B | C | D | E |
| 16. He should work without a plan | A | B | C | D | E |
| 17. He should let staff members know what is expected of them | A | B | C | D | E |
| 18. He should be slow to accept new ideas | A | B | C | D | E |
| 19. He should maintain definite standards of performance | A | B | C | D | E |
| 20. He should be willing to make changes | A | B | C | D | E |
| 21. He should emphasize the meeting of deadlines | A | B | C | D | E |
| 22. He should be friendly and approachable | A | B | C | D | E |
| 23. He should encourage the use of uniform procedures | A | B | C | D | E |
| 24. He should make sure that his part in the school system is understood
by all members | A | B | C | D | E |
| 25. He should make his staff members feel at ease when talking with them | A | B | C | D | E |
| 26. He should ask the staff members to follow standard rules and regulations | A | B | C | D | E |
| 27. He should put suggestions by the staff into operation | A | B | C | D | E |
| 28. He should get staff approval on important matters before going ahead | A | B | C | D | E |
| 29. He should see to it that staff members are working up to capacity | A | B | C | D | E |

PART C

Please complete the following:

1. Your position. (please check one)

- I. Principal
- II. Teacher (including vice-principal)

2. Your sex.

- I. Male
- II. Female

3. Your teaching certificate or grade. (please state degrees, if any)

4. Number of teachers on your Regional or Central High School staff. (please check one)

- | | | | |
|------|---------|-----|--------------|
| I. | 1 - 4 | IV. | 15 - 19 |
| II. | 5 - 9 | V. | 20 and above |
| III. | 10 - 14 | | |

5. Denomination of school.

6. Grade or grades you teach. (please circle)

VII VIII IX X XI XII

7. Total years of teaching experience.

- | | | | |
|------|---------------|-----|-------------------|
| I. | 1 - 4 years | IV. | 15 - 19 years |
| II. | 5 - 9 years | V. | 20 years and over |
| III. | 10 - 14 years | | |

8. For Principals Only. Number of years in a Regional or Central High School.

- I. As a teacher years
- II. As a principal years

9. For Teachers Only. Number of years in a Regional or Central High School.

Please check to make sure you
have answered all questions.
I very much appreciate your help.

APPENDIX C

Letter Granting Permission to Adapt the LBDQ.

THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY
Novice G. Fawcett, President
COLUMBUS 10

Hagerty Hall 137
1775 South College Road
March 16, 1959

Mr. Philip Warren
11244 - 78 Avenue
Edmonton
Alberta, Canada

Dear Mr. Warren:

Thank you for your interest in the LBDQ. We are pleased to grant you permission to adapt the items for use in your research.

Sincerely yours,

(Sgd.) Ralph M. Stogdill

Ralph M. Stogdill
Research Associate

RMS:sw

APPENDIX D

Letters Accompanying the Questionnaire

11244 78 Avenue
Edmonton
April 9, 1959

Dear Principal:

Earlier in the year I wrote you concerning my study of the "Leadership Expectations of the Principal in Newfoundland's Regional and Central High Schools as Perceived by Principals and Staffs." I am attempting this study because it is generally agreed that the principal has a vital part to play in determining the program offered in these schools. As stated in my letter to teachers, this study is an attempt to find out what principals and staffs feel the principal should do in certain key situations. The primary purpose is not to evaluate the effectiveness of the principal, but rather to ascertain the principal's beliefs, and those of his staff, concerning how he should behave as an educational leader.

Enclosed are the questionnaires. You are asked to complete the blue one and distribute the white ones to teachers. All teachers and all principals of Regional and Central High schools are being asked to complete these. I know you realize how important it is for all to do so, especially since there are relatively few schools. I would very much appreciate your encouraging teachers to complete carefully and individually.

The Officials with whom I have been in contact in the Newfoundland Department of Education are interested in this study. As stated on my last letter, this study is being carried on with the approval of the Division of Educational Administration at the University of Alberta.

I have enclosed envelopes so that teachers can seal their completed questionnaire before returning to you to return to me. No individual names or names of schools are requested. The findings will be published in summary form so that no one school or person can be identified.

Please forward to the above address. If individual teachers prefer to forward questionnaires themselves, my address is also placed on their letter. Please encourage all to complete as early as possible.

I express sincere thanks for your assistance. Without your co-operation this study would not be possible.

Sincerely yours,

(Sgd.) Philip Warren

11244 78 Avenue
Edmonton
April 9, 1959

To the Teacher:

Many feel that one of the greatest developments in Newfoundland education in recent years has been the establishment of Regional and Central High Schools. The Hon. F. W. Rowe, Minister of Education, expressed this feeling in 1958, in a policy statement entitled "A Blue Print For Education." These schools attempt to offer an enriched educational program.

The principal in these schools has a vital part to play in determining the nature of the program. This study is an attempt to find out what principals and staffs feel the principal should do in certain key situations. The primary purpose is not to evaluate the effectiveness of the principal, but rather to ascertain the principal's beliefs and those of his staff concerning how he should behave as a leader.

Officials at the Newfoundland Department of Education with whom I have been in contact are interested in this study. This study is being carried on with the approval of the Division of Educational Administration, University of Alberta.

Your careful and prompt reply is essential to this study. Your name and address are not requested. You are asked to complete the questionnaire, place it in the envelope provided, seal it, and return directly to me at the above address, or return to the principal to be returned to me.

The findings of this study will be published in summary form so that individual teachers and schools cannot be identified.

I offer sincere thanks for your assistance.

Sincerely yours,

(Sgd.) Philip Warren

APPENDIX E

Follow-up Letter to the Questionnaire

11244 78 Avenue
Edmonton, Alberta
May 4, 1959

Dear Principal;

I am happy to say that during the past few days I have received many of my questionnaires for a study of the role of the Newfoundland regional and central high school principal. If questionnaires from your school have been forwarded, please accept my sincere thanks and express same to members of your staff.

I would very much appreciate, however, if you would encourage those who have not completed it (if any) to do so at their earliest convenience. I realize how busy everybody is, but as you know I have to wait until as many as possible are in before I start the actual analysis.

The second reason for writing at this time is to check on whether all schools received questionnaires. If you did not, please let me know immediately, and I will forward same.

Sorry to bother you again, but I feel you understand how important it is that I receive replies at an early date.

Yours sincerely,

(Sgd.) Philip Warren

APPENDIX F

Table of Response Distributions for Individual Expectation Items

TABLE OF RESPONSE DISTRIBUTIONS FOR
INDIVIDUAL EXPECTATION ITEMS

Part A Item	Sample	Strongly Agree	Agree	Un- decided	Dis- agree	Strongly Disagree	No Answer
1	P T	15 52	3 32	2	2	1	
2	P T	7 27	7 40	2 9	1 13	1	
3	P T	15 40	2 38	8	1 2		1
4	P T	7 25	9 44	12	2 5	2	1
5	P T	15 37	3 45	5	2		
6	P T	10 25	7 51	1 7	4	2	
7	P T	6 13	8 33	2 14	2 24	4	1
8	P T	11 36	6 48	1 3	1	1	
9	P T	12 39	6 44	3	3		
10	P T	15 39	3 43	5		2	
11	P T	15 40	3 41	3	2	1	2
12	P T	7 37	9 36	1 13	1 2		1
13	P T	3 22	8 33	3 13	4 18	3	
14	P T	3 31	6 32	6	6 18	2 2	1
15	P T	16 54	2 29	3	2	1	

TABLE (continued)

Part A Item	Sample	Strongly Agree	Agree	Un- decided	Dis- agree	Strongly Disagree	No Answer
16	P T	9 47	9 39	1	1	1	
17	P T	14 68	3 19	1 2			
18	P T	4 17	12 53	1 11	1 7	1	
19	P T	2 21	14 39	17	2 9	3	
20	P T	4 20	11 49	1 11	2 8		1
21	P T	11 40	6 34	1 7	6	1	1
22	P T	17 54	1 34		1		
23	P T	3 5	8 34	5 30	2 15	2	3
24	P T	3 8	8 44	6 29	1 5	2	1
25	P T	14 44	4 43	1	1		
26	P T	9 34	9 44	8	2	1	
27	P T	10	9 21	4 11	5 35	11	1
28	P T	9 33	9 43	7	5	1	
29	P T	8 25	9 54	1 5	4	1	
30	P T	7 17	6 44	2 13	3 8	5	2

TABLE (continued)

Part B Item	Sample	Always	Often	Occasion- ally	Seldom	Never	No Answer
1	P T	9 59	8 22	1 8			
2	P T	2	4 10	11 45	2 21	1 9	2
3	P T	7 19	7 31	4 34	1	3	1
4	P T	13 71	4 10	1 8			
5	P T	7 32	8 32	3 21	1	3	
6	P T	6 26	4 32	8 25	3	1	2
7	P T	5 44	3 18	6 11	3 6	1 8	2
8	P T	13 78	5 6	5			
9	P T	1	1	5 18	6 26	7 41	2
10	P T	4	4	2 14	5 17	11 47	3
11	P T	3 23	6 8	5 28	3 14	1 12	4
12	P T	3 25	5 26	8 32	2 4	2	
13	P T	10	5	1 15	5 23	12 34	2
14	P T			2 8	6 24	10 56	1
15	P T		1	7 22	4 45	7 21	

TABLE (continued)

Part B							No
Item	Sample	Always	Often	Occasion- ally	Seldom	Never	Answer
16	P T	3	1	3	10	18 72	
17	P T	11 70	5 6	2 10	1	2	
18	P T	6	3 12	3 29	4 16	8 24	2
19	P T	12 60	4 21	1 5	1	1	2
20	P T	6 29	7 25	5 33	2		
21	P T	6 44	8 27	4 17	1		
22	P T	17 83	1 4	2			
23	P T	6 49	6 20	6 15	2		3
24	P T	15 74	2 5	1 7	1	2	
25	P T	18 84	3	2			
26	P T	8 50	6 19	2 12	2 5	2	1
27	P T	1 3	12 43	5 42			1
28	P T	9 42	5 33	4 9	3		2
29	P T	7 45	9 27	1 14	1 1	2	
30	P T	15 64	3 21	4			

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